

The Nation.

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The Week.

THE Dingley bill has been abandoned in the Senate, to the evident satisfaction of its friends as well as of its enemies. The sole contest between the two was as to how the credit or the blame of its taking off should be apportioned. The only persons in the United States who have given any sign of mourning for it are they of the Boston Home Market Club. They take it hard, because they say they cannot possibly wait till next spring. So the public will have a chance to see what happens to people who cannot possibly wait for a certain thing, and yet are obliged to do so. The touching obsequies in the Senate were marred somewhat by a speech from Mr. Sherman, who said that the bill was designed simply to supply the necessary revenue to the Government. This is very far from the truth. It was designed to put money into the pockets of certain protected classes and interests, and incidentally to give the Government more revenue, *perhaps*. Now that we are all working together to keep the Goths and the Huns from over-running civilized government, why not speak the truth? Why not acknowledge that if we want revenue merely, we can get it by a bill, of not more than one page of foolscap, that will be entirely unobjectionable—a bill putting a stamp tax on instruments used mainly by the rich, or by increasing the tax on beer, or by putting duties on tea and coffee, or, better still, by cutting down the public expenses to the dimensions of the revenue? A little candor would be very beneficial just now, and might help to pass the other tariff bill that is in preparation for next spring.

That was not the only disingenuous statement imposed on the Senate by Mr. Sherman. He said that if the revenues of the Government had been sufficient to meet its expenditures, there would have been no need of the sale of bonds to replenish the gold reserve—meaning, of course, the expenditures other than the redemption of legal-tender notes. How far this is from the truth the following figures will show:

PROCEEDS OF BOND SALES	REVENUE DEFICIT.
Fiscal year.	Fiscal year.
Feb. '94..... \$58,600,917	'94..... \$69,809,340
Dec. '94..... 58,444,900	'95..... 42,405,323
Feb. '95..... 65,116,275	'96..... 28,042,344
Feb. '96..... 111,166,246	
\$293,358,338	\$138,650,727
	Excess of proceeds of bond sales.. 154,737,611

If there had been no drain on the Treasury for gold (due to the Sherman act), the amount of money required to be raised by bond sales would have been only \$138,650,727, or less than one-half of the

amount actually so raised. Even the deficit that has existed Mr. Sherman ascribes to the Wilson tariff, whereas that tariff did not go into operation till August, 1894, after two bond sales had been necessitated and one of them effected. The truth is, that the deficit was caused by the McKinley tariff and the new pension legislation coming together. The former was avowedly passed "to reduce the revenue," and this it accomplished by repealing the sugar duties and giving a bounty to domestic producers of sugar. The latter added \$50,000,000 to the public expenditures. The two things made a difference of \$120,000,000 in the Government's balance sheet, and now Mr. Sherman puts all the blame on the "Wilson-Gorman tariff." Is not that prevarication about played out?

One part of Secretary Carlisle's report should make some impression even upon a torpid Congress. It is the part in which he urges retrenchment. On the basis of the present estimates, he notifies Congress that it will be deliberately voting a deficit of \$45,000,000. Congress avows its own imbecile helplessness in the matter of increasing the revenue. Not an added tax can be levied, not an added dollar brought into the Treasury. Then why not cut down the appropriations? asks the Secretary. This seems an obvious suggestion, but Mr. Carlisle is the first man in authority at Washington to make it. Senator Sherman declared passionately the other day that it was a shame and a disgrace to Congress not to pass a bill to increase the revenue. The shame and disgrace of waste, of wanton and reckless extravagance, never occurred to him or anybody else in Congress. Nor does the Secretary of the Treasury leave all in the vague. He shows in detail where the extravagance has crept in, and intimates clearly the ways in which it may be pushed out. He justly asserts that "the great increase in the ordinary expenditures of the Government during the last seven years has been without precedent in our history."

The Secretary's conclusion is that of every other man who has looked into the affair, namely, that there has been no such "necessary extension or substantial improvement of our public service as to justify these enormous increases in expenditures." Wherever a probe has been thrust in, as by the Dockery committee of the last Congress, wastefulness and sinecures have been found. It is safe to say that any well-managed business, finding itself in embarrassment like the Government's at present, could extricate itself handsomely by the most obvious kinds of economy and cutting off of useless or scandalous expenses. But, of

course, it is the last thing Congress will think of doing. Economy is the most unpopular policy that any man can advocate in any popular assembly—that is to say, if he advocates it sincerely, with a bill up his sleeve to enforce economy. An old English financier said, "If you want to rouse a certain cheer in the Commons, rise and deliver a panegyric on economy; if you want to invite a certain defeat, propose a bill to effect any particular economy." So it will doubtless be in this Congress. Mr. Carlisle's recommendation of retrenchment will be no more regarded than the whistling of the winter wind over the capitol. Nevertheless, he may have the satisfaction of knowing that he is entirely right. If there were any umpire between him and Congress, he would be given the victory without hesitation. As it is, he will have to put up with the somewhat meagre contentment of the Roman who proudly said that though the conquering side was pleasing to the gods, the defeated side was pleasing to Cato.

Four commercial bodies took action on Monday against the Cameron resolution for recognizing the independence of Cuba. The Baltimore Board of Trade passed resolutions declaring that the action taken by the Senate committee was ill-timed, hasty, and calculated to greatly embarrass, if not actually sever, the peaceful relations now existing between Spain and our country, and, as a natural consequence, to seriously damage our commercial and financial interests, already suffering from grave depression. The St. Louis Cotton Exchange adopted resolutions of similar tenor. They considered that such a step as that proposed by the Cameron report would be instrumental in lowering the values of all farm products, and especially that of cotton, to the great detriment of American producers of that staple. The Vicksburg Cotton Exchange and Board of Trade united in protesting against the Cameron resolution and in asking the Senators of Mississippi to vote against it. The Boston Merchants' Association took similar action. As all these protests were passed the same day and without any concerted action, they betoken a spirit of strong opposition among the commercial classes of the country to the reckless behavior of the Senators who compose that committee, to wit (of those present), Senators Sherman, Frye, Davis, Cameron, Cullom, Lodge, Morgan, Daniel, and Mills.

The *Tribune's* "Steady, Now!" on its Sunday editorial page was a proper, though tardy, appeal to reason in this Cuban business, but the men whom that paper should have made heroic efforts to "steady" were its own Washington cor-

respondent and its local "head-line editor." On the first page we were informed of the terrible danger that "Congress May be Defied," and the Old Pensioner was let loose for a column in denunciation of Secretary Olney's "counter-challenge of contempt and defiance." The patient explorer of the detailed dispatches given farther on would find that the House was in agreement with Mr. Olney, and that therefore all that was defied was a reckless committee of a reckless Senate. But the inflammatory headlines would have done their work with nine readers out of ten, who would have carried off the impression that the President was bent on wicked usurpation of the power of Congress. The instance is a good one of the incoherency and futility of much of our newspaper "editing." The devil's work is done on the first page, and the editor's appeal for deliberation and decency can have little weight with readers who perceive that it has none with himself. As for the head-line artists, they doubtless chuckle to themselves and say, "Let who will write the editorials of a country provided we may manufacture its news and put lying 'heads' on it."

Some of the Southern newspapers see trouble ahead in case Cuba should come into the Union and be "one of the United States." The first result would probably be one if not two mulatto Senators sitting beside Morgan and Call, and whom those high-born Caucasians would not associate with outside of the chamber. Maceo himself, whom they are so fond of praising, and who no doubt deserved all the praise he receives, was a mulatto. If he were alive and in Washington today, and were to hold a reception or give a dinner party, no Southern Democratic member of either house would go to it, or would be reelected if he did. The condition of affairs in "Cuba Libre" would be such that a considerable part of the white population would leave the island, and the political power of the blacks would be correspondingly increased. All of them, both whites and blacks, are Roman Catholics of the bigoted Spanish type, in whose minds religion and the State are inseparably joined. Their presence as a part of our law-making power would be one more element of heterogeneity, and an element especially obnoxious to the South. We do not wonder that Southern newspapers want to draw the line between Cuba Libre and annexation. Let Cuba be free, but not come any nearer to the United States.

The extraordinary performances of various Senators regarding our foreign relations provoke national curiosity as to their motives, and lend interest to any attempt on the part of their constituents to solve the mystery. The course of Roger Q. Mills of Texas has, perhaps,

caused more surprise throughout the country than that of any other member of the body. He served for many years in the House, and established a good reputation in that branch, but his course in the Senate since the first year or two after his entrance has been almost worthy of a crazy man. The people of Texas do not know what to make of him. The *Galveston News* discusses at length his "diversities of character," characterizing him as "a statesman, if he may latterly be called such, of phenomenally fitful and irregular tendencies," and pronouncing his public career "a strange mixture of energy, industry, prudence, rashness, boldness, timidity, tenacity, and frenzy." As illustrations it cites his proposition in the Senate to prohibit the sale of bonds to save the Treasury and credit of the country from imminent peril; his announcement on the stump that he would vote for the free and unlimited coinage of pewter money before he would assent to the disruption of the Democratic party; and his recent scheme to have the President take military possession of Cuba.

There were several public men who were so active in the free-coinage secret service which "fixed" the Democratic State conventions of last spring, and so idle in the hot Presidential canvass which ensued, that comment of no very favorable nature was attracted, even from the silver organs; witness the sarcastic criticism of the *Mobile Register* and other Democratic organs on the conduct of these carpet knights. Some people reasoned that the free-coinage magnates were annoyed because, when they had led their followers to Chicago with their own Presidential candidate clearly pointed out, the mob stampeded after an unknown young adventurer. Others argued, with some show of plausibility, that the lack of anticipated funds for palace-cars and for carte-blanche at the best hotels had caused these leaders to prefer the comforts of their own homes between July and November. Others, again, believed that the fiat-money principles blatantly professed by Bryan had disgusted those who would go no further than free silver. Whatever the cause, it will be easily recalled that the unfortunate Teller was the only member of the senatorial silver clique to make a serious effort in the boy candidate's behalf. How bad a mess he made of it, when his forged quotations, designed for the consumption of Illinois farmers only, were exposed, is a matter of history.

Senator Vest of Missouri was one of the malingerers. It was said of him, as of the others, that Bryan's greenback notions were too much for him. We have always doubted such a motive, chiefly because it has been our invariable experience that a free-coinage agitator,

pushed to the wall in argument, will show the colors of a thorough paper-money inflationist. The speech of Mr. Vest in the Senate, on Wednesday week, shows that our judgment was correct. Mr. Vest belongs by mental capacity, and probably by choice, to the ultra-inflation school of agitators. Here is his statement:

"We are told that there is \$22.85 per capita circulation in this country. A more atrocious falsehood was never put in print or uttered by mortal man. . . . There is no such money in circulation. They take no account of bank reserves, State or national. They amount to over \$600,000,000 at the least, locked up by law, that cannot be used by the people nor paid out by the officers of those institutions. And yet they are counted from year to year. . . . What we want and must have in this country is more circulating medium."

This is the regulation fiat-money argument. What do we care for bank deposits? Who bothers his head about bank checks? How can you expect to impose on us by the story that the man with \$100 in bank and nothing in his pocket is \$90 richer than the man with \$10 in his pocket and nothing in bank? What we want is people with pockets full of silver dollars, or (of course), in the case of objection to the weight, with purses full of new legal-tenders. Then everybody will be employed, everybody will be rich, everybody will have whatever he wishes. Mr. Vest, in short, proclaims off-hand the stupid and exploded fallacy that the only money in circulation is the money of private hoards, that its only use in commerce is to fill up the pockets of the people. Banks are a nuisance and obstruction to prosperity; bank deposits an idle fund, contrived to swindle a hard-working population; the Italian immigrant with his money-belt is your true type of capitalist. We commend Senator Vest for his frankness. Every new bit of evidence to show that the free-coinage agitators are only a set of fiat-money lunatics masquerading under free silver instead of unlimited paper, will add to the public awakening on the question.

The short session of a Congress is not apt to be fruitful of important legislation, the appropriation bills and other routine measures demanding all the time; but occasionally a non-partisan measure of great value is passed, like the civil-service law, which was carried through during the winter of 1882-'83. The present session seems now certain to be distinguished by the enactment of a law for the restriction of immigration more far-reaching than any ever passed. It applies an educational test to all persons over sixteen years of age who come from foreign countries, and denies admittance to those who "cannot read and write the language of their native country or some other language," except that an admissible immigrant over the age of sixteen may bring in with him, or send for, his wife, parent, grandparent, minor child, or

grandchild, notwithstanding the latter's inability to read and write. The House passed the bill in substantially the same form at the last session, the only changes made by the Senate being the substitution of sixteen for fourteen as the age limit, and the addition of an *ad captandum* provision allowing Cuban refugees to enter the United States, even if they are illiterate. The lower branch will doubtless accept these changes, and the President's approval of the bill may be expected. The enforcement of the new law will put an immediate and effective check upon the immigration of undesirable immigrants from the countries of southern Europe in particular. At the same time the annexation of illiterate Cubans on the one hand, and Hawaiians on the other, is the preoccupation of not a few supporters of the measure.

The Union League Club has chosen an excellent committee of fifty to go to Albany to urge Mr. Choate's election. There could hardly be better names found in the City Directory. These gentlemen are not necessarily going with the hope of succeeding. If success were easy, if the Legislature represented the people of the State, they would not have to go at all. A representative Legislature could not hesitate if it had to choose between Joseph H. Choate and Tom Platt for the United States Senate. It is because it is not representative, because it is "owned" and the press has been "called off," that this committee has been brought into existence. It goes to Albany mainly in order that the great scandal and disgrace of Platt's election may not pass without protest; that it may not be set down in history that when the State of New York could get one of its leading citizens, an able, learned, eloquent man of high character, to serve it in the Senate, it chose in his stead one of its meanest citizens, feeble, ignorant, mischievous, characterless—and no one cried shame. It goes to show that there are still Americans among us who recall the great days of the republic and the high standards of its founders, and would fain keep for their country its legitimate place in the march of civilization.

But one cannot read over the list of names on the committee without asking himself: Is it possible that fifty such men, influential as they are in finance, law, commerce, and manufactures, can do nothing to stop the payment of money to Platt by the corporations? But for this money he would have his legitimate place among us, that of an exposed black-mailer, and the State would be delivered from the scandal of his political influence. If this money were refused to him, his foul domination would cease instantly. Can these gentlemen do nothing to bring home to the officers of the companies on which Platt levies, the mischief they are

doing to their country and their children? The man's power is utterly factitious. It rests on their money. Were they to withdraw the money, he would not have the slightest capacity to do them harm, and they must know that Platt's system cannot go on for ever. It must bring ruin in the long run on all the ideas, customs, and habits on which the safety of corporate and other property lasts. It is no more legitimate business or legitimate politics than "holding up" trains or passing forged checks. But it can run long enough to demoralize the whole community and hasten the day when, as one of the Bryanites said, "Bankers may be hung like horse-thieves."

Platt has very evidently prepared some circular letters for his dummies in the Legislature to send to Senator Pavey, in response to the latter's inquiry as to their attitude on the senatorship. Two replies of this kind have been published, and the similarity of language and ideas is so striking that there can be no doubt that both originated in the same quarter. Both are extremely eulogistic of Platt and his wonderful services, and are pervaded by the same tone of personal admiration for him which distinguished his circular letter to the Platt editors of the State two years ago. It is characteristic of him that he should be so careless of the reputations of his "men" as to make them publish their subserviency with so little disguise. Their letters are put into print in this city almost before it is possible for them to reach Senator Pavey by mail, the boss's anxiety to read his own praises of himself being too great for him to be able to await the slow process of the postal service. Ordinary consideration for the reputations of his dummies would lead him to employ several different hands in the composition of his replies, but he has never shown anything of that kind for his "men." We observe that Assemblyman Austin of this city makes the unnecessary announcement that he prefers Platt to Choate for Senator. How else could he hope to be Speaker of the new Assembly?

The argument that is oftenest used, and oftenest proves most irresistible, in discouraging opposition to Platt, is, What is the use of fighting him when he is certain to be elected? This has been employed in the interest of various politicians of doubtful character for many years in this State. It used to be said of Hill that "the Mugwumps have been pounding him for seven or eight years, and he is stronger now than he was when they began." He was apparently stronger, but not really so. He was able in 1892 to control both branches of the Legislature and the Governor, and had the machinery of his party so firmly in his grasp that he held a State convention in midwinter and had a solid Hill delegation

sent to the Democratic national convention. But beyond that point he could not advance. The long "pounding" of the Mugwumps had made his character so well understood by the country that he had no strength whatever as a Presidential candidate. The same "pounding" so completely revealed him and his methods to the people of New York that in three successive elections they defeated him and his party by majorities ranging from 90,000 to 150,000, with the result finally of retiring him to private life. It is now necessary to do like work with Platt. He must be shown up so thoroughly that the people of the State will see him as he is and send him after Hill. No matter how successful he may be now, his fate is certain, provided honest men and honest newspapers do their duty.

Mr. Olcott, the new District Attorney, by Gov. Morton's appointment, makes the surprising announcement that, in selecting men for the minor positions of the office, he shall defer to the Assembly district Republican associations, asking them to submit names for his consideration. In consequence of his saying this he is already overrun with applications, all backed by the Republican machine workers. We beg to suggest to him that he may not be able to make his own selections for these minor places from such lists as he mentioned. It is possible that those places are all under the State civil-service regulations, and that he can make his selections only from the eligible lists which result from competitive examinations. The noble array of names which the "Progressive Civil-Service Reform Association," led by Gruber and Van Allen, is making out for him may not need to be considered by him. He can remove all the present incumbents, but can he fill their places otherwise than from the eligible lists? If it be found that he cannot, the discovery will intensify the loathing of the "Progressives" for the civil-service law. Possibly had he and the Progressives suspected it, the machine recommendation of his candidacy would not have been so hearty as it was. The question to be decided is whether or not these minor places come within the constitutional requirement that "all appointments and promotions shall be made according to merit and fitness, to be ascertained by examinations which, so far as practicable, shall be competitive." Mr. Olcott must show that competitive examinations would not be "practicable" in this instance, for under the following ruling of the Court of Appeals the matter is not decided by the regulations and statutes:

"If the Legislature should repeal all the statutes and regulations on the subject of appointments in the civil service, the mandate of the Constitution would still remain, and would so far execute itself as to require the courts, in a proper case, to pronounce appointments made without compliance with its requirements illegal."

CUBA IN THE SENATE.

It is rather surprising that the task of embroiling this country in a war for "Cuba Libre" should have fallen to the lot of Don Cameron. This sluggish knight has had a seat in the Senate nearly a quarter of a century, and never took any interest in any public question until a couple of years ago, when he came out as a 16-to-1 silverite of the Bland and Bryan variety. His political activity has now assumed a new form. He proposes to recognize Cuban independence as an accomplished fact by resolution of Congress, and has secured a majority of the committee on foreign relations, including Senator Sherman, to report it favorably. The statement given out by Secretary Olney on Saturday to the effect that Congress was not vested with the diplomatic function of recognizing the independence of Cuba was not only right *per se*, but timely and necessary. It is imperative that a check be given to the attempt now making to conduct the foreign relations of the Government through town meetings. No other country has ever embarked on such a perilous career except France under the Revolution. The result of the experiment then was to involve the country in a war with the whole of Europe, which ended in her own subjugation by a despot and the eventual subjugation of the country and the despot after a deluge of blood lasting twenty years. They manage these things better in France to-day. They have profited by their experience. Although they have a republican form of government, the diplomatic function is reserved to the executive branch exclusively, and the question of recognizing a new government would never be submitted to the legislative department, still less to mass-meetings in the provinces. Government could not be carried on that way. Nor can it be carried on that way here. To submit such delicate questions to a referendum would be like giving dynamite bombs as playthings to a kindergarten. Constitutional questions of this kind must be judged by their consequences. Ex-Senator Edmunds is probably justified in saying, as he is quoted in the *Herald*:

"The right of Congress in its legislative character to declare war is expressly given by the Constitution, but the power to make peace and preserve it is given by the Constitution to the President, acting, in most cases, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. To say the least, therefore, the right of Congress to recognize the establishment of a new state in the family of nations against the judgment of the executive branch is extremely doubtful, and to do so would, under existing circumstances, necessarily produce evils the extent of which can hardly be estimated."

Secretary Olney's statement, however, must be looked at in the concrete rather than in the abstract. He says that the power to recognize Cuba as an independent State resides with the President exclusively, and that the Cameron resolution, if passed, even by a two-thirds majority, will be inoperative. "It may," he

continues, "raise expectations in some quarters which can never be realized. It may inflame popular passions, both in this country and elsewhere, may thus put in peril the lives and property of American citizens who are resident and traveling abroad, and will certainly obstruct and perhaps defeat the best efforts of the Government to afford such citizens protection. But except in these ways, and unless the advice embodied in the resolution shall lead the Executive to revise conclusions already reached and officially declared, the resolution will be without effect, and will leave unaltered the attitude of this Government towards the two contending parties in Cuba." This is equivalent to saying that the country shall have peace as long as Mr. Cleveland remains President. Nothing could be more judicious or more satisfactory to sober-minded citizens. Nothing done by Mr. Cleveland's Administration has been received with more manifest pleasure by the business interests of the nation. The news comes now by way of Europe that Mr. McKinley is of the same way of thinking as Mr. Cleveland; that he, too, is opposed to the break-neck policy of conducting our foreign relations by town meeting, and to a premature recognition of Cuban independence.

It is not probable that the Senators who voted for the Cameron resolution in committee on Friday really desire that it should pass. Long experience has taught us to look upon such outbreaks as gymnastic exercises merely. They are playing to the pit. They are afraid that somebody at home will "cut under" them. They want to do something that they think will command the votes of the multitude, and win the applause of the thoughtless and reckless portion of the community, hoping that the House or the President or the chapter of accidents will prevent their action from causing any great harm. This is what they mean when they say that "there will be no war." They mean that although they are taking the steps to bring on a war, somebody or something else will intervene to save us from that calamity. None of them thus far has expressed any desire for war. In fact, that would not be popular, for there is no feeling of hostility among our people towards Spain. Aside from a belief that Spain is an oppressor of a people struggling to be free, there is no disposition here to wish her harm. There is, therefore, no substratum of hostility for the veriest demagogue in the Senate to work upon. Hence we cannot imagine that the Senators who voted for the Cameron resolution had any other design than to put themselves on record as being as thoughtless and reckless as the other town meetings that are passing judgment on Cuban affairs in Texas, California, and elsewhere.

Reference has been made in this discussion to President Jackson's message of December 21, 1836, on the subject of

the independence of Texas, as though it were a document decisively against Mr. Olney's position and in favor of Don Cameron. On the contrary, a more calm, temperate, and conservative communication was never penned by an American President. In its moral and practical aspects it sustains Mr. Cleveland admirably. Although the revolutionary government of Texas had a local habitation as well as a name, and was capable of entering into diplomatic relations with other governments, although it was continuous with our territory, and although the revolutionists were Americans by birth and in one sense a part of ourselves, and although they had actually expelled the Mexican army, President Jackson counselled delay, and suggested that the republic of Texas be not recognized by us until it was recognized either by Mexico, its own mother country, or by some leading nation of the Old World. On the mere abstract question, whether the power to recognize resided with Congress or with the Executive, he rather leaned to the opinion that it belonged to Congress; but his opinion was not very decisive, and was evidently expressed as a matter of deference rather than of mature deliberation.

THE RISE IN OUR FOREIGN TRADE.

In the present somewhat unusual situation of our market for international exchange, the report of last month's foreign trade of the United States, just issued by the Bureau of Statistics, is particularly interesting. The belief was rather general, after the sound-money victory of November 3, that the merchandise export balance, which had been so exceptionally heavy during the summer and autumn months, would be reduced. The ending of the money-market disorder would make possible a renewal of plans for importing and marketing foreign goods; the same factor would encourage home producers and manufacturers to hold back their products in anticipation of better prices. As a matter of fact, the first advices received after the November vote announced that farmers at interior points had ceased to forward wheat for export in such quantity as characterized the movement of October, and that large orders for merchandise importations, placed conditionally in the foreign markets, were being executed.

The November statement, however, by no means shows any such change in the character of the month's foreign trade as had been anticipated. Our exports for the month were barely \$4,000,000 short of the October record, and exceeded the exports of November, 1895, by \$26,294,525. Imports, meantime, did not increase at all over either October or September; as a result, last month's excess of merchandise exports over imports was \$59,053,885, against only \$23,967,764 in November, 1895. For the eleven completed

months of 1896, the merchandise export balance reaches the extraordinary figure of \$266,086,709, whereas last year, up to the close of November, we had actually imported more than we had exported.

This unexpected continuance of a diminished import trade is sufficiently explained by the dull commercial season which has prevailed. The maintenance of our heavy export trade, however, is of more material significance. While our bread-stuffs exports for November were slightly less than those of the month preceding, the cotton shipments were decidedly increased, and in these two branches of our trade combined we sold last month to foreign consumers \$16,500,000 more than in November, 1895, and \$18,000,000 more than in 1894. By all accounts, moreover, our shipments of manufactured products to the foreign markets, not yet reported on in detail by the Bureau, have held during the last six weeks to their recent unprecedented average. The detailed summary of the country's commerce for October and for the first ten months of 1896 reaches us at the same time with the general statement for November, and in its export trade returns furnishes some interesting particulars.

Export of copper, for example, increased during the ten recorded months no less than \$12,055,513 over the same period in 1895; Europe taking all the increased shipments. Exports of bicycles and bicycle appliances increased \$2,921,603; shipments to England, the Continent, Canada, and Australasia having grown from almost nothing a year ago to a very active and flourishing trade to-day. Export of cotton cloths was larger by \$5,661,859 in the ten months of 1896 than in 1895, nearly all of the heavy increase coming in our trade with China and Canada, two fields of commerce once surrendered almost wholly to the English manufacturers. Of machinery our total exports increased \$4,593,076 over 1895, and here we have invaded the personal domain of the European manufacturer, for Great Britain and the European states took from us upwards of five millions more than they took in the preceding year. In practically every other branch of American manufacture, including leather, lead, zinc, wood, and paper goods, manufactured tobacco, and canned provisions, there has been an increase over 1895 running from 5 to 200 per cent.

These comparisons prove, quite unmistakably, that the accident of a season through which Europe was forced to buy our grain this year in larger quantity and at higher prices, is only one cause, and not the most important, of our present unusual command over the world's consuming markets. Our export of grain alone this year, up to the opening of the present month, showed an increase over 1895 of \$45,801,725, but the total merchandise export from this country, during the same eleven months, increases over last year by the extraordinary sum of

\$156,349,350. In other words, the wheat shortage abroad accounts for barely 30 per cent. of the total increase in our export trade. It is, to be sure, an easy possibility for the tariff-tinkers to demoralize and overturn, as they have done before, this sound and wholesome movement. It is conceivable that persistence in an utterly indefensible currency system will once more throw us out of joint with the markets of the world. But if mischief of this sort can be obviated, our restricted import trade and our enterprising search for outside customers will lay a solid foundation for the future.

Nothing could better illustrate the new position into which this country has been brought, by the trade developments of the year, than the fact that foreign money centres are at this moment borrowing heavily in this market. We are aware that some of the present operations in exchange are described as simple speculation, whereby money is raised in New York city to hold back sterling bills for sale at next month's anticipated higher rates. But it must be obvious to every one familiar with the sterling market that this operation simply reduces itself to borrowing capital in New York for the purpose of deferring a present claim on the London money market. The discount rate to-day in the German cities is 5 per cent., at London it is 3½, while at New York it is 3 per cent. or less; the unusually high European rates being distinctly a result of the capital drawn to the United States in settlement of our large trade balance against the foreign markets. That this is the actual situation, and that the recent advance in foreign exchange represents loans by this country to Europe, not repayment of our own European debt, is plain enough from the remarkable increase in loans of the New York banks. This account has expanded \$38,000,000 since the middle of last month, in the face of an absolutely lifeless local demand for loans. As a matter of public knowledge, most of the new loans of the last five weeks have been made on sterling-exchange bills as collateral.

This leaves the immediate future of our international relations in finance a problem of peculiar interest. Apparently the situation is reversed completely from that of the last few years, when a rise in sterling in December meant the recall of capital owed by us to Europe, not the borrowing of our capital by Europe. The quite invariable outcome of this country's situation, in the four years prior to 1893, was a movement of international exchange against us pretty much throughout the year, and a continuous gold shipment. Such an event seems hardly probable in the coming season; New York has now heavy maturing credits to draw upon in London, and they would certainly be drawn upon were foreign exchange to rise to the specie-shipping point. The usual heavy demand for remittances against our January interest

payments might conceivably send some gold abroad this month; but, under all the circumstances, it would virtually go as a loan from us, and would hardly reach large dimensions. It is, therefore, altogether possible that the new year will begin with the Treasury reserve no longer in danger of depletion. The conditions under which this altered situation has developed accompanied, and in large measure originated with, the Wilson tariff act and the Government loan of February, 1896. It would be asking much, however, to expect the new Administration and its friends to concede any such connection. We shall watch with interest for their explanation of the matter.

PLATT AND THE CORPORATIONS.

THE Hartford *Courant*, a good Republican paper, states with remarkable clearness and force what an increasing number of people are to-day thinking and saying. It recognizes the fact that at the last election we merely escaped a great danger. We are somewhat in the position of people who, having been shipwrecked, have got ashore on a desert island and are asking themselves how they are to live until relief comes. "There was plainly something wrong," says the *Courant*, "with the way things were going, else there could not have been such a formidable demonstration against the very structure of society. Many are asking what the wrong things were. There is one wrong upon which there is very general and hopeless agreement—that is, the legislatures and the influence of corporations on them."

We shall not quote more from this article, which touches the core of the great evil with which we are contending in this State to-day. That the attacks of Bryan on the corporations did not make more impression was due to the fact that he attacked so many other things, and principally because he coupled with the corporations public and private credit. This ruined his case. But suppose he had confined himself to saying that the State legislatures were passing, and in many cases had passed, out of the hands of the people, and were now regularly bought up by money furnished by the corporations to a "boss," who undertook to procure such legislation and prevent such legislation as they desired, and who rendered no account; suppose he had alleged that the boss did his work by laying each member under pecuniary obligations, so that each member had a tacit understanding with him to follow his directions in the discharge of his legislative duties: what defence should we have made? Is it possible to deny one of the allegations made by the *Courant*? Could we have made any defence? We could not.

Moreover, we must not flatter ourselves that the Bryanite feeling is likely to die out. Bryan's follies about currency will

probably fade from the popular recollection. But what he says, and hundreds of others say, about the corrupt influence of corporations and rich men on our government will not fade from the popular recollection. It is the burning question of the day. The rapid decline in character and responsibility of the legislatures in the large States, such as New York and Pennsylvania, is feeding the flame of popular discontent. The agitation on this matter will last. We shall have to meet it in 1900. How shall we meet it? If we go on as we are now going, we shall have nothing to say. There is as yet no sign that our political men have taken the solemn lesson of last summer to heart. Some of them are preparing at Washington to increase the profits of a large body of rich men in their goods by a higher tariff. This State is preparing to set aside one of the foremost Americans of the day as a candidate for the senatorship, in favor of the very boss who carries on the corrupt and corrupting business of which we speak; and this when the antics of the Senate are filling the country with anxiety and alarm.

The boss in this State is treating the triumph of last summer as his triumph, and that of his nefarious trade. He has, as usual, returned a body of venal legislators subservient to his will. He has secured a Governor of his own stripe who gives every sign of readiness to do what he directs. He has apparently obtained the appointment, as Superintendent of Insurance, of a man whom a leading Republican denounced last year as a "stench in the nostrils" of honest men. We are credibly informed that the corporations would welcome his appointment, and do now support it, not because he is upright and skilful and experienced and honest, but because they know him to be pliable and easy to buy. In other words, his appointment would be, in a certain sense, in part a return for their money. The boss has also secured the control of the Railroad Commission of the State by getting his creatures put on it, so that his power over the moneyed companies of the State is really to-day more complete than it has ever been before. His arrangements are more perfect. He even exacts for himself the highest honor his venal Legislature has to bestow. Not in any direction is there the slightest sign that he or his followers have profited by the lesson of the election.

All men who love their country will do well to ask themselves now whether this can last without having in the end a serious reckoning. We have been astonished and alarmed by the financial theories of the Bryanites. Take care that we shall not be more alarmed in 1900 by their theories about government. It will be extremely difficult for us who allow the boss's relations with the corporations to continue, to meet them. Shall we be able to show that the people of Pennsylvania are truly represented at Harrisburg

or the people of New York at Albany? Shall we be able to show that the sending of Quay and Cameron, Hill and Murphy to the Senate was for the popular good? Shall we be able to explain the Platt and Quay system to the multitude as the best thing we could do for the people?

The truth is, as every one is now seeing more and more, we cannot begin too soon to make ready for the next Presidential election. We shall have to encounter arguments far more difficult to deal with than Populist attacks on the currency. These are refuted by the nature of things and the course of events. But what kind of "catechism" or pamphlet shall we have to compose which will show Platt to be a good institution? Does any one suppose the discontented masses will say that the purchase of legislatures is a good use to make of corporate money? The campaign of 1900 will, too, be "a campaign of education," but it remains to be seen who will get the education. The thing which this year's campaign made clear was that the American people are not yet ready for bogus money, but it also made clear that they are not ready for the permanent establishment of boss government. What will they have in its stead?

STORE MANNERS.

THE Consumers' League, an organization of ladies who are interested in the condition of working-women and girls, and have published a "white list" of retail houses who treat them well, offers the following advice to shoppers:

"If at any time you may feel irritated or annoyed by apparent indifference or carelessness of saleswomen, stop and consider what it means to be on one's feet from ten to fourteen hours a day, in a crowded space, shoved and pushed about, lifting heavy boxes at times, waiting on impatient customers and customers who wish to be helped to know their own minds, keeping accounts of sales and stock, taking addresses often given hurriedly and carelessly, and fined in many instances if written down incorrectly; and all this for salaries ranging from \$3 to \$8 a week, and obliged to dress neatly and fairly well, and to pay out of it for one's meals, lodging, washing, clothing, and carfare."

And this to saleswomen:

"We must also appeal to saleswomen themselves to do their duty to the public and to their employers. Our efforts to secure for all the women and girls who work in retail shops in this city the same conditions which exist in the shops on the White List of the Consumers' League, are hampered by the fact that the service is often better in the shops which are not on the White List. The saleswomen in the shop which, of all others in New York, gives its employees the greatest number of privileges, have been so notoriously rude in their treatment of the public that ladies have given that reason for not patronizing it, and thus a very strong moral as well as business argument can be made in favor of fines and severity of discipline."

The observation on all this which most readily suggests itself is, that the great mass of shoppers are themselves poor, or of very moderate means; that they, too, have their worries and vexations, and that when they go shopping they do not do it for recreation, or for the considera-

tion of anything except the best mode of making a dollar go far. Besides this, they are not obliged to go to any store in particular. When rudely treated in one, they can and do go to another; and they are not likely to submit to bad treatment because the shop-girls are too hard-worked or too poorly paid. They will not, under such circumstances, bestow any fruitful attention on the condition of the girls, particularly when, as the League acknowledges, the saleswomen in the shop which, of all in New York, "gives its employees the greatest number of privileges, have been so notoriously rude in their treatment of the public that ladies have given that reason for not patronizing it." We thus see that reflection on the troubles of the saleswomen would not always do good. Nor does even an improvement in their treatment by their employers always lead them to adopt better ways.

We are thus driven to the conclusion that the question of manners and consideration is of far more importance to the saleswomen than to the customers. The customers are not obliged to submit to bad manners; they can go elsewhere. Good manners mean business success to the girls. They mean the prosperity of the store, and, as a possible result, better wages and shorter hours. To the customers they mean simply a few minutes of pleasurable sensation, and a determination to make another purchase in the same place at another time. In fact, the bad manners of the salesmen, and particularly of the saleswomen, in New York, are one of the misfortunes of the city. One of the mysteries of New York business is the singular failure of both employers and employed to consider manners as part of the investment. It is safe to say that a pleasing address, an appearance of welcome and of a desire to satisfy the shopper, to meet her wishes and make her feel that her custom is valued, are worth a large amount of capital, in proportion to the size of the store. We should not exaggerate greatly if we said good manners would enable a dealer to dispense with one-third of his investment in money in all retail business.

This criticism is not so true of the men as of the women. The fault of the men when they try to be polite, especially with ladies, is coarse familiarity. The fault of the women is rudeness and indifference, especially towards other women. They affect not to see them when they enter the store, not to hear them when they ask to see goods; fling the article asked for before them in an unmannerly way, and resume a conversation of their own with their mates, making it difficult for the customer to attract their attention again. This is of constant occurrence in a large number of the stores, even in two in this city which are carried on, not for purposes of private gain, but to help women who have seen better days. Complaints of these have reached us on several occasions of late. Little is

done in either to help the customer, or make her welcome, or to make her feel that her purchase is of any importance. An English lady complained to us of what she considered the singular custom in the stores among the women, of not looking her in the face—one of the most elementary marks of human respect. The saleswomen look away in order to give greater emphasis to their general indifference.

Part of this is undoubtedly due to want of early training. Manners are now rarely taught to children either at school or at home. They grow up "kind o' natural"—that is, behaving as they feel. But a good deal is due to a desire to assert some sort of social equality. "I am as good as you and I want you to know it, though I am a saleswoman," expresses the feeling at the bottom of much rudeness and indifference. The thing to say to people to whose comfort this assertion is necessary, is that they should not seek or hold any employment which brings them into contact with the general public. There are thousands of occupations which can be carried on without intercourse with the world outside, and these are the proper occupations for persons who feel it necessary to maintain their independence by rudeness. For every woman who means to enter the retail trade, manners should be considered by her and her employer as necessary as neat dress, or stools to sit on, or ability to add and subtract, or English speech. They should be learned and cultivated, like typewriting and stenography, as among the qualifications for a particular kind of business. We are always surprised that employers do not pay more attention to this in selecting their salesmen and saleswomen. We believe bad manners to be as injurious to business as inaccuracy in accounts or ignorance about the goods. Of course they are difficult to discover, owing to the customers' unwillingness to complain of maltreatment, but there is all the more reason why employers should themselves keep a sharp watch, and not only make inattention or indifference to customers a reason for dismissal or fine, but make failure to please, invite, and make welcome, a disqualification for the business.

IN OLD GUJARÁT.

AHMEDABAD, October 23, 1896.

THAT there is no hotel in this interesting old town is probably the reason why it is so neglected by European and American tourists. But it is not unpleasant to pass a few days in a *dák bungalow*; and behind the station, where there is an excellent restaurant, one finds good beds and service in the Government Rest Rooms, which occupy the site of an old mosque, though nothing remains of the latter save the two graceful minarets that rise among the palms of the Rest Room garden. A week's stay at Ahmedabad will, I think, give more insight into Hindu life than can be obtained by a month's residence at Bombay, Agra, or Delhi. Moreover, the architectural remains surpass in beauty those of the last-named cities. The great Jain temple here, that of Hathi

Sing, is unique in the history of pure Hindu architecture, and the delicate carving in the windows of Sidi Said's mosque is not equalled by anything in India or even in Cairo.

There are other temples and mosques well worth visiting, but these, despite their attractiveness, are not the main charm of the town. For Ahmedabad is the chief city of old Gujarát (this is now the official spelling), and here are preserved better than anywhere else certain sects and institutions which have remained almost untouched since the Middle Ages. Here, for example, is the stronghold of the Jain faith, that sect which, more fortunate than Buddhism, has succeeded in maintaining religious preëminence and political power in its ancient habitat. The Jains here are no miserable ascetics. Most of them belong to the merchant class, and the saffron brow-mark is seldom seen save on the forehead of very comfortable-looking burghers; for the wealth of the city is chiefly in their hands. Here, too, flourishes the worship of dark Káli, Çiva's female counterpart, to which awful goddess (I have been permitted to enter her shrine and look upon her, and she certainly is an awful being) a goat is still often offered.

Through the courtesy of a Brahmin friend who has some influence at the temple, I received permission to witness the sacrifice. It was at midnight. The goat, emblem of that human sacrifice which till within a few years was offered at the same shrine, was slaughtered by the gaudy but dignified priest with no great suffering, though perhaps its cry was somewhat stifled by the shouts of the worshippers. Through the Three Gates at the moment happened to pass a belated Jain, who could not avoid seeing the horrid spectacle, since the altar of sacrifice is immediately in front of the door of the temple, and the latter stands beside the inner Gate. With what horror he shrank back! I love these gentle Jains. Their main tenet is to hurt no living thing, and they observe it scrupulously. Lately I was invited to see a private temple in the house of a wealthy Jain merchant. He asked me first to remove my shoes, for none may walk shod in a Jain temple. Over every lamp, and there were many in the room, a shield was placed, lest any insect should be hurt. There were a few ants on the floor. "Please do not hurt them," he said, and added, smiling, "They are kind little Gujarát ants, and bite so softly that it would be a shame to punish them." But I did not test their kindness.

"Would you like to see our hospital?" asked my new friend. I knew what he meant—the Pinjra Pol. How often I had heard of it, and wondered at such inhuman charity! Till the year 1859 there was no other hospital in Ahmedabad, but the Pinjra Pol has existed for centuries. It is the same in every Jain community, and even some of the Vaishnava sects have their own Pinjras, asylums for sick beasts and houses of refuge for decayed animals (I suppose there can be decayed animals as well as decayed gentlewomen), with a little private apartment for bugs and vermin. A boy goes out every day and collects all the vermin he can find in precarious situations, housing them for good when he returns with them to the Pinjra (cage). All cattle that can be saved from the butcher are brought hither to end their days in peace. Here all dogs may come and pass a green old age; and sick monkeys are taken from the romping *bander-log*, which sport about the ruins near Kankariya lake, and are tended in the Pinjra till they become convalescent.

All this has its absurd side of course; but the instinct is kindly that prompts it, and the effect of the teaching influences all classes. In this town of 148,000 inhabitants, where, through the narrow and crowded streets of the Bazar, thousands jostle each other and ox-carts are entangled every minute, I have only once seen an animal beaten. Indeed, an extra touch of the guiding-whip usually elicits a disapproving *bas* (Enough!) from the throng. Nor have I seen any man drunk or any woman struck in all my wanderings, though I have gone freely through the lowest quarters. Jains and non Jains, all are well-disposed toward man and animals. It is the living faith of one powerful sect working on all the environment. Recently I stood by the Three Gates, and saw a group of water-carrier women pass through the court that connects the three massive gateways. There is a tree here, the home of squirrels. Not one of these common working-women, and they did not even belong to the Jain sect, failed to pause for a moment and fling a handful of grain to the expectant little beasts. It may have been all their religion, but it was good to see. The Jains themselves do not believe in God, but they have a very practical religion. It is a pity that it cannot be introduced among the nations of the West as a sort of subsidiary cult.

Speaking of the women reminds me that they have learned the art of walking like queens. I use this conventional expression, but in my limited experience with queens I have never seen one walk so well as does the stately working-woman of Ahmedabad. This is partly due to the fact that the latter wears only a short skirt and a sash, with sometimes a loose half-bodice, which is intended to cover the upper part of the breast, though it often fails to do so. Ease in attire is not, however, the main reason for the free gait and lofty carriage so conspicuous here; yet the secret is so simple that it is strange no fashionable boarding-school has caught it and advertised to turn out American girls that can walk. Let any young woman anxious to please try this receipt: Put a wad of cloth or straw on the head and balance on this a small jug or pail, walking around in the position enforced by the balance. I think an hour's daily exercise of this sort might improve health as well as carriage; but at any rate it would produce something better than the dragon stride of the English girl or the usual amble of her Yankee cousin.

There has just been opened, by the way, a "Hindu woman's club-house" in Ahmedabad, the first of its kind. It is a sort of native *gymkhana*, or exercise hall, exclusively for Hindu ladies. These ladies this week kindly put their hall at the disposal of the Gujarát "Educational Conference," which I was invited to attend. Appropriately enough, the principal topic discussed was female education. The building itself is of marble, of two stories, well ventilated, with a general appearance of being all windows, so light and airy are the rooms. It is situated directly opposite the "Female College." Of this latter institution, as of the Jain trade-guilds of Ahmedabad, I should like to give you an account, but I fear I have taken too much space already.

Through the aid of a native friend and the great kindness of the chief merchants, I was accorded the honor of a special session of the "grand masters" (of the guilds), who furnished me with information that is all the more valuable as these corporations are rapidly losing their antique privileges. Ahme-

dabad is the most important guild-city in India, and I am glad to express thus publicly my indebtedness to these good-natured gentlemen, who gave up two hours of a business day, submitting to be quizzed in regard to the rules and jurisdiction of their private associations, merely that the stranger within their gates might not go back disappointed.

E. WASHBURN HOPKINS.

Correspondence.

DECREASING ILLITERACY OF THE COLORED VOTE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The new election law of Maryland requires all voters who can write to sign their names upon the registry of voters at the time they register. In the Eleventh Ward of Baltimore city there were registered 2,885 colored voters. Of these, 910 could not write their names and 1,975 did write them. In other words, something more than two-thirds of them were able to write. Voters who in 1896 were forty-five years of age or over must necessarily have been at least fourteen years of age at the close of the war. There were registered 772 colored men of the age of forty-five years or upwards. Of these, only 341 could write their names, and 431 could not. Voters who were between thirty-five and forty-five years of age were from four to fourteen years old at the close of the war. Of these, there were 705 registered, of whom 440 could write their names and 265 could not. The remaining class of colored voters were those between twenty-one and thirty-five years of age, none of whom were more than four years of age when the war closed. There were registered in the ward 1,408 of this class. Of these only 214 were unable to write their names. Reduced to percentages, it appears that fifty-six per cent. of the colored men over forty-five years of age can not write; thirty-seven and a half per cent. of those between thirty-five and forty-five are in the same degree of illiteracy; while of those under thirty-five, only a trifle over fifteen per cent. are unable to sign their own names.—Respectfully, JOHN C. ROSE.

BALTIMORE, MD., December 17, 1896.

CHRISTIAN SOCIALISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A reader in this library has asked me to define Christian Socialism. I am unable to find a clear definition in any of the books. The latest definition I find is in a recent book by Lyman Abbott, entitled 'Christianity and Social Problems,' in which he says:

"It [Socialism] includes the Christian Socialist, who believes that Christianity is a social religion, and that the principles and precepts of Jesus Christ, carried out in social organizations, will revolutionize the present social order, as it has revolutionized social order in the past" (p. 129).

I should like to ask the editor of the *Nation* whether this definition is correct, and, if there be such a thing as Christian Socialism, why we may not logically have also Christian Anarchism, Christian Nihilism, and a number of other Christianisms.

The book referred to contains some statements worthy of notice, coming as they do from such a source, and which will be received with rejoicing by the enemies of the "money

power." For instance, on page 61 the author says:

"At the present time one small body of men control the anthracite coal output, a second small body the oil, a third small body the meat, a fourth small body the transportation, and there are not wanting indications that a fifth small body will soon exercise a practical control over our currency or medium of exchange. This is a condition of things perilously near a control over a people's subsistence, against which Alexander Hamilton warned his countrymen."

Again, in the chapter on Christianity and Communism, referring to the single-tax idea, the author says:

"If land is made a subject of private ownership, it is only because the sovereign power deems such an arrangement better for the common welfare than is common ownership" (p. 86).

The advances made in Christian Socialism are pointed out on page 120:

"We have definitely abandoned *laissez-faire* and the Manchester school." Government has definitely, distinctly, and finally declared that the relations between men in industry cannot be left to the conflict of self-interest. There must be, in some measure, Government control exercised over them. From that declaration we shall never, in any Anglo-Saxon community, go back to the old pagan individualism."

Readers of this book, I think, would be glad to know how it is estimated by the *Nation*.

Very truly,

WM. M. STEVENSON, Librarian.

CARNEGIE FREE LIBRARY,
ALLAUGHNEY, PA., December 18, 1896.

MR. KIPLING JUSTIFIED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your notice of Mr. Kipling's volume, 'The Seven Seas' (*Nation*, December 10, 1896), the reviewer quotes "that exceedingly keen and cool Oriental, the Swami Vivekananda," as authority for the statement that the very title of Mr. Kipling's ballad, "Gunga Din," is impossible. Happily for Mr. Kipling's reputation for accuracy, one authentic bearer of the name is on record to testify to the possibility of the combination. From an official document quoted in Trevelyan's 'Cawnpore,' page 93, edition of 1886, it appears that at the outbreak of the Indian Mutiny a Naik, or corporal, in one of the native regiments stationed at Cawnpore was named Gunga Din.

W. STRUNK, JR.

ITHACA, N. Y., December 17, 1896.

NAPIER'S LOGARITHMS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The statements of the *Nation* have so much weight with cultivated readers everywhere that errors, when they creep in, must be harmful if uncorrected. In the review of my 'History of Elementary Mathematics,' in the *Nation* of November 26, the reviewer endeavors to supply what he considers a gap in my work by telling how Napier constructed his table of logarithms. The process actually followed by Napier was entirely different, and was described by him in his 'Mirifici Logarithmorum Canonis Constructio' (an English translation by W. R. Macdonald, 1889, is now an easily accessible work).

The reviewer commits another error when he attempts to correct a misprint in my 'History.' Evidently he did not have in mind the following passages taken from the 'Arithme-

tica Logarithmica' (1625) in which Briggs points out the advantage, "si Logarithmus sinus totius servaretur 0 (ut in Canone mirifico) Logarithmus autem partis decimae ejusdem sinus totius, nempe sinus 5 graduum, 44, m. 21, s., esset 10000000000"; and then says of Napier, "istam autem mutationem ita faciendam censebat, ut 0 esset Logarithmus unitatis, et 10000000000 sinus totius."

FLORIAN CAJORI.

COLORADO COLLEGE,
COLORADO SPRINGS, December 2, 1896.

"UNCONSTITUTIONAL."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a paper called "Words Coined in Boston," printed in the *New England Magazine* for November, Mr. C. W. Ernst wrote:

"An interesting document in the Boston Town Records of December 27, 1782, has the words *unconstitutional* and *unconstitutionality*. They may be coinages of Colonel William Tudor. At any rate, they have a new meaning. An English writer might call anything unconstitutional which seemed to him out of harmony with the constitution of his country; yet it might be legal. The Boston words denote something supposed to be illegal and of no force or effect because contrary to the constitution of the Commonwealth" (Vol. xv., p. 344).

While it is very likely that these are the earliest examples of both terms in the particular sense indicated by Mr. Ernst, yet it is highly improbable that *unconstitutional* originated in Boston, and certainly the word was not coined by Col. Tudor. Johnson's Dictionary (1755), recognized *constitutional* but not *unconstitutional*, while the earliest quotation given in the Oxford Dictionary for the former word in its political sense is under date of 1765. It would be strange if, among a people so stirred as were the American colonists by the events preceding and following the passage of the Stamp Act, such words as *constitutional* and *unconstitutional* should not have been employed. And in fact we find that, alike in colonial assemblies and in town meetings, from one end of the country to the other, the Stamp Act was denounced as "unconstitutional." It was at this period that, so far as the writer is aware, the word came into general use on this side of the Atlantic. Later, when State constitutions and finally the federal Constitution were drawn up, the word acquired the special signification pointed out by Mr. Ernst.

"It seems to them, that the trustees, thus empowered and enjoined to confer all the king's rights, expressed in the charter, could convey no other rights, nor no less; and that every grant or tenure of theirs, short of such, was contrary to the charter, and an illegal and unconstitutional reserve." 1743, *Brief Account of the Causes that have retarded the Progress of Georgia*, in *Collections Georgia Historical Society* (1842), II., 92.

"Less did I think it kind to insist with the vehemence Mr. Grenville used, on positive declarations from Mr. Conway. Such commands appear to me highly unconstitutional, and therefore I do not see how they can be made with friendship to the party." 1764, June 5, H. Walpole, *Letters* (1891), IV., 342.

"Resolved [by the Virginia Assembly], therefore, That the General Assembly of this Colony, together with his Majesty or his Substitutes, have, in their Representative Capacity, the only exclusive Right and Power to lay Taxes and Imposts upon the Inhabitants of this Colony. And that every Attempt to vest such Power in any other Person or Persons whatever, than the General Assembly aforesaid, is illegal, unconstitutional and unjust, and have a manifest Tendency to destroy British as well as American Liberty." 1765, *Boston Gazette*, July 1.

"At a Time when the British American Subjects are everywhere loudly complaining of arbitrary unconstitutional innovations, the Town of Boston cannot any longer remain silent without Just Imputation and Inexcusable Neglect." 1765, Sept. 13, *Boston Records* (1866), xvi., 155.

"We do most expressly declare . . . That it is the opinion of this House, that the said act for granting and applying certain stamp duties, &c., as aforesaid, is unprecedented and unconstitutional." 1765, Oct. 2. *Connecticut Colonial Records* (1881), xii., 424.

"They discountenanced, and, it is hoped, for ever abolished, the dangerous and unconstitutional practice of removing military officers for their votes in parliament." 1766, E. Burke, *Short Account of the late Short Administration*, Works (1815), ii., 5.

"I heartily thank you for your honest remarks and candid sentiments on our American disputes. They have been always mine, and I trust we shall never differ in opinion thereon. The unconstitutional steps pursued to obtain a constitutional redress, can hardly be paralleled, and I fear they have kindled a fire which all their engines may not extinguish, notwithstanding all the paper puffs, and the distresses which they threaten Great Britain." 1766, Sir W. Johnson, in R. Rogers's *Journals* (1889), 219.

"The Utopian schemes of levelling, and a community of goods, are as visionary and impracticable, as those which vest all property in the Crown, are arbitrary, despotic, and in our government unconstitutional." 1768, Jan. 12, *Journal Mass. House of Representatives* (1767), Appendix, 26.

"I shall only say that his reasoning is much like that of a late letter-writer from London, whose wonderful performance, if I mistake not, was inserted in all our newspapers, who says, 'when an act of Parliament is once passed, it becomes a part of the Constitution.' This at once, I confess, shuts the mouth of all Americans from complaining of revenue acts, or any other acts of Parliament as unconstitutional; for what is an essential part of the Constitution, I think, cannot be unconstitutional." 1769, S. Adams, in W. V. Wells's *Life* (1895), i., 59.

"Resolved, that the late act for the shutting up of the port of Boston, and the two bills relative to Boston, which, by the last accounts from Great Britain, had been brought into parliament, . . . are calculated to deprive many thousand Americans of their rights, properties and privileges, in a most cruel, oppressive and unconstitutional manner." 1774, in D. Ramsay's *History of the Revolution of South Carolina* (1785), i., 20.

"He [Waller] was probably the more ardent, as his uncle Hampden had been particularly engaged in the dispute, and by a sentence which seems generally to be thought unconstitutional particularly injured thereby." 1779, S. Johnson, *Lives of the English Poets*, 87.

"Nevertheless, this unconstitutional Assembly, whose authority under an assumed charter has been tacitly acknowledged by the British Parliament, have not at all times been unchecked by the Corporation of Yale College." 1781, S. Peters, *History of Connecticut*, 90.

"I hope you will not think me too local or statically envious when I mention that a similar instance has occurred in Massachusetts, where, when the Legislature unintentionally trespassed upon a barrier of the Constitution, the judges of the Supreme Court solemnly determined that the particular statute was unconstitutional." 1783, J. B. Cutting, in G. Bancroft's *History of the Formation of the Constitution of the U. S.* (1882), ii., 473.

"I have just received a copy of an act of assembly of North Carolina for ceding to congress all the territory on the Western waters, or nearly all, together with the people. . . . But if congress accept the cession will they not sanction the most manifest violation of rights that can be committed? For expatriation of a part of the community is not a power included among those exercised by assemblies in America convened for ordinary legislation. If, then, the act of cession is unconstitutional, can congress derive any right under it?" 1790, P. Henry, in *Life, Corr. & Speeches* (1891), iii., 415.

"The address to the President contains a very full digest of all the arguments urged against the

bill on the point of unconstitutionality on the floor of Congress." 1790, T. Jefferson, *Writings* (1896), v., 205.

"There appears, therefore, no room to say that the bill is unconstitutional, though there may be another construction of which the Constitution is capable." 1792, A. Hamilton, *Works* (1896), vii., 60.

ALBERT MATTHEWS.

Boston, December 13, 1896.

Notes.

EDWARD ARNOLD announces the speedy publication of Dr. Donaldson Smith's narrative of his pioneer exploration of the territory between Somaliland and Lake Rudolph; Col. Thornton's 'Sporting Tour through the Northern Parts of England and Great Part of the Highlands of Scotland' (1804), as volume ii. of 'The Sportsman's Library'; and Louis Paulian's 'Paris qui mendie,' translated, under the title 'The Beggars of Paris,' by Lady Herschell.

D. Appleton & Co. publish at once 'The Struggle of the Nations: Egypt, Syria, and Assyria,' by G. Maspero, a companion volume to 'The Dawn of Civilization.'

'Dr. Jameson's Raiders,' by Richard Harding Davis, is in the press of R. H. Russell & Son.

'Dante in America: An Historical and Bibliographical Study,' by Theodore W. Koch, is to be issued by Ginn & Co.

Henry T. Coates & Co., Philadelphia, have nearly ready 'American Genealogies,' an alphabetical list of those printed in book form, by Thomas Allen Glenn. It will, we judge, dispense with the critical appreciations which Mr. Whitmore gave in his 'American Genealogist.'

'Le Satanisme et la Magie,' M. Jules Bois's more or less well-known book, has had such measure of success in its earlier and somewhat costly form that his publisher (Léon Chailley) has decided to bring out a cheaper edition of it. There is a certain false air of science about the book, which is really much less scientific than its author perhaps desired it to be and perhaps thinks it is. It is also much less interesting; for a book full of sorcerers and witches, of magics, of devils and ghosts, of spells and enchantments, and horrible Black Masses ought to be very interesting indeed. But there is nothing in the volume nearly so thrilling as J. K. Huysmans's account of the Black Mass in 'La-Bas.' It is, indeed, to M. Huysmans that the most interesting pages of M. Jules Bois's book are due: a study by way of preface on the Satanists and the Luciferians. The volume also contains a translation of Book iv. of Cornelius Agrippa's 'Occult Philosophy.'

We have already reviewed, in the English translation, Victor Hugo's Letters from 1815 to 1835. Calmann Lévy's handsome original edition of the 'Correspondance' comes to us from Brentano's—a massive octavo of nearly 400 pages of large type.

The second volume of the 'Dictionary of Political Economy,' edited by R. H. Inglis Palgrave (Macmillan Co.), covers in about 850 pages the letters F to M. The editor calls especial attention to the articles on the 'Historical School of Economists' and on the French, German, and Italian Schools of Economics, and these articles are evidently the result of much pains. We are disposed to prize this Dictionary principally on account of its biographical and historical matter.

There is here comparatively little room for difference of opinion; when it comes to a statement of theories and doctrines, it is perhaps impossible to exclude the personal bias of the writer, and some of the minor articles amount to little more than expressions of the preferences, or prejudices, of those who have prepared them. We venture the further criticism that a considerable number of titles might have been omitted: the differential calculus, for instance, hardly seems to call for any treatment in a Dictionary of Political Economy.

The second volume has appeared of Prof. Bury's valuable edition of Gibbon's 'Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire,' now publishing in seven volumes by Methuen & Co., London (New York: Macmillan). The editor has already, in an introduction, surveyed the merits and the necessary defects of so old a classic, and he accompanies the progress of the text with local rectifications and with references to our larger (because later) knowledge. The footnotes additional to Gibbon's are again supplemented by an appendix of authorities, with learned discussions of the origin of agnosticism, world-eras, early church institutions, the number of Christians under Diocletian and Constantine, the genuineness of Antoninus's rescript concerning the Christians, the persecutions of the Christians in the first and second centuries, the attitude of Constantine to the Christian religion, etc., etc.

In Harper's uniform edition of Mark Twain's works, the contents of the latest and seemingly last volume range over nearly twenty years, and embrace 'Tom Sawyer Abroad,' 'Tom Sawyer, Detective,' and a number of minor stories, fragments, and *jeux d'esprit*. The illustrations are humorous and occasionally something more.

Messrs. Putnam give two new forms to Irving—one as an addition to the "Heroes of the Nations" series, namely, his condensed Life of Columbus; another, a collection of stories and legends, with an eye to classes in literature. Both these volumes are illustrated, with pictures new and old; Darley's Rip Van Winkle outlines being reduced for the collection, and many plates from De Bry and Herrera and other old books of voyages appearing with the Columbus, which has besides a priceless frontispiece in "the authentic portrait" of the explorer; but we fear this claim will give rise to much contention.

'The Illustrated Bible Treasury,' which Thomas Nelson & Sons send us, should be a welcome aid to Sunday-school teachers and in general to Bible students with meagre libraries. It combines the advantages of a condensed concordance to both authorized and revised versions, a subject-index, a pronouncing dictionary of proper names, together with a good deal of matter relating to Biblical archaeology and Orientalisms supplied by accredited writers. We need but add that an indexed Bible Atlas is included, and that the whole is clearly printed and beautifully bound in flexible covers.

A summary of Nansen's experience on the Fram, the results of our Presidential election, the progress of the Venezuela settlement, the Transvaal's course since Jameson's conviction—these are some of the signs of fresh, up-to-date editing of Hazell's Annual for 1897 (London: Hazell, Watson & Viney). "A cyclopædic record of men and topics of the day," it truly calls itself, and in its twelfth year it finds the demands on its space and the necessity of enlargement greater than ever. It is a mine

of compact information as to current matters, personal, political, parliamentary, legal, financial, and commercial. The maps are of the Sudan, Guiana, Armenia, and the Transvaal.

Extreme clearness of expression and accuracy of scientific statement characterize the late Dr. H. Newell Martin's 'Human Body' (Henry Holt & Co.), in the advanced course of the American Science series. This excellent seventh revised edition, dated only last May, accentuates the public loss in the author's very recent and much-lamented death. As he has expressed it, he tries to show the outposts and outlooks of physiology as they now are, and one wonders who will conduct, for the classes of the future, in this advanced work that for the past sixteen years he has carried on *pari passu* with the progress of science. His work is not ostensibly for students of medicine, but they may profitably study it; and the student of general science who intelligently accompanies the leader to this point, is well beyond the physician who may have stopped where his professor of physiology halted a dozen years ago. The arrangement of the book is excellent, and there are frequent summaries that make practical application of the principles as previously explained. The final chapter, on reproduction, is omitted from such copies as may be specially ordered, but the delicacy and purity with which this function is explained warrant its going before any minds, not in mixed classes, sufficiently mature to appreciate the rest of the volume. Ignorance and innocence are not twins, and knowledge as here conveyed leads only to physical rectitude.

Those who regard popular domestic medicine and the allied sciences and arts as either entertaining or serviceable will be gratified with 'In Sickness and in Health,' by the late J. West Roosevelt, M. D., and a group of collaborators (D. Appleton & Co.). This colloquial discussion, which runs over nearly a thousand large octavo pages, sets forth in everyday speech almost all the physical ills of man, and most of the measures suitable to combat them, and ranges from psychology to the preparation for the grave. Its matter is sound, and, for heads of families and mature persons who have the time and the inclination to prepare in this way for the evil days, it is as safe as any such treatise can be in untrained hands.

'Practical Points in Nursing,' by Emily A. M. Stoney (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders), has been specially prepared for those in charge of private as distinguished from hospital patients. It is neither redundant nor meagre in its injunctions, and not only admirably fulfils its proclaimed purpose, but would be a particularly valuable reference-book for families geographically or financially beyond the range of trained nurses.

Two small volumes, arranged for a didactic course covering two years, make 'A Text-Book for Training Schools for Nurses,' by P. M. Wise, M.D. (G. P. Putnam's Sons), whose peculiarity is the attention paid in it to the care of insane patients. It devotes a much larger space to what is commonly known as First Aid than seems necessary for pure and simple nursing.

A book of pleasing little poems reminiscent of childhood, by Louise Chandler Moulton, is called 'In Childhood's Country' (Boston: Copeland & Day). Unfortunately it is defaced rather than illustrated by its pictures of odd-looking children, some of them absolute caricatures. Better luck has befallen another collection of verses for and about children,

'The Child World,' by Gabriel Setoun (The Bodley Head), which gains distinctly in interest by the illustrations scattered profusely through its pages. The illustrator is Charles Robinson, who did the same kindly office for Stevenson's 'Child's Garden of Verses.' Mr. Setoun's verses are too much like Stevenson's in subject and manner to escape the comparison which the accompanying illustrations immediately prompt; but on the whole they endure it better than one would expect, though lacking something of the buoyant imagination which saved Stevenson's simplicity from the least touch of dullness.

'Les Trois Dumas,' by André Maurel (Paris: Librairie Illustrée) is mostly very thin stuff, especially in the portions which treat of Gen. Dumas and the elder Alexandre. The third and larger part, devoted to Dumas fils, contains some information concerning his dramas which is neither very new nor very full.

Halpérine-Kaminsky's translation of Tolstoi's articles on Zola, Dumas fils, and Maupassant, which appeared in the *revues*, is issued in book form by Chailley, Paris. The speech of Zola and the letter of Dumas, which were the proximate cause of Tolstoi's expression of opinion, are prefixed, and a repudiation of them greatly enhances the pleasure felt on reading the Russian author's views. The Maupassant study is a remarkably sound one, though it is far from saying the last word on this gifted writer, who, with so much that is absolutely debasing in its immorality, has left so much more that is as absolutely moral, powerful, and superb.

The second volume of Charles Livet's admirable 'Lexique de la langue de Molière' (Paris: H. Welter) includes the words from "dadais" to "luxuriant." A general review of the work must necessarily be postponed until the remaining volumes are published.

Bibliographica, Part xi. (London: Kegan Paul; New York: Scribners) has among its leading articles one on "Calligraphy in the Middle Ages," by Sir E. Maunde Thompson, who introduces a goodly number of facsimile specimens of choice hands, and concludes with pictures and some account of the furniture of a medieval library, with pivoted desks and book-rests, shelving, presses, and other apparatus. In a larger plate, Petrarch and Boccaccio are shown in debate near a revolving desk. Mr. F. Madan has some interesting notes on George Thomason's great collection of Civil War tracts, now in the British Museum, and concludes that Thomason's dates affixed to them are usually of the day he procured them, but sometimes (as is clear) of publication. Examination also reveals that the popular works generally used in their imprint the historical year (Jan. 1) rather than the calendar year (March 25) in issues between those dates; the class of official, theological, and learned stood by the calendar. Readable at once and substantial are papers on "English Armorial Book-stamps and their Owners" (including Pepys), by W. Y. Fletcher, and "Private Printing in France during the 15th Century," mostly ecclesiastical, by A. Claudin. The former is fully illustrated.

D. B. Updike (The Merrymount Press), Boston, gives notice of the discontinuance of the English periodical the *Quest*, of which he was the American publisher. He hopes to retain the services of some of the *Quest*'s "Birmingham School" designers.

The account of German Philhellenism, by R. F. Arnold, which fills considerably more than one-half of the latest number of *Euphron* (*Ergänzungsheft* II.), may be of interest

to others besides students of German literature, whose notice it would hardly escape. Philhellenism is perhaps the most striking manifestation in all history of what may be called international sympathy; and in Germany the movement extended over so long a period—more than three-quarters of a century—and so many of the most brilliant names were connected with it, that its rôle in the intellectual history of the people is by no means unimportant.

At the forty-fourth annual meeting of the Wisconsin State Historical Society on December 10 the new accessions to the library during the year were reported at 9,002, of which 5,247 were books and 3,755 pamphlets. There were, besides, gifts of some 3,000 duplicates. The entire collection contains about 94,000 bound volumes, with nearly as many pamphlets. A library building for which the last Legislature had appropriated \$180,000 has been begun on an ideal site presented by the State University. The work has been retarded in order to ascertain the best architectural model, as well as that every detail may be made incombustible. It is hoped that the forty-sixth anniversary, in 1899, will be celebrated in the completed edifice. The whole estate of Lyman C. Draper was bequeathed to the society, of which he had been the chief promoter for a generation. This bequest has been formed into a fund the income of which will be devoted to paying for an exact and voluminous index to the Draper manuscripts. These consist of 400 folios relating to the history of our Northwest and Southwest from 1750 to 1815, already much resorted to by historical students. The peculiar feature of the meeting was a series of speeches commemorative of Lucius Fairchild, who was a principal benefactor of the society, and widely known as head of the Grand Army, a Government official in England, France, and Spain, and the first man who served six years as a Governor of Wisconsin.

The Atlas to accompany the official records of the Union and Confederate Armies concludes with three supplementary sheets (135 A, B, C) and the fore-matter of the complete work, namely, table of contents, plate by plate; references from the several volumes of the records to the Atlas plates illustrating them; an alphabetical list of authorities (i. e., of the officers responsible for the sketches and their assistants); and finally a geographical index to the plates, filling more than a dozen folio pages in five columns.

The ninth annual meeting of the American Economic Association will be held at Levering Hall, Johns Hopkins University, on December 28-31.

Nothing with a more distinctive stamp, or better conceived and executed, in the way of a Christmas gift, especially for descendants of the Pilgrims, has come to us than the portfolio of six etchings, by Harold B. Warren, entitled 'Scrooby and Austerfield: The English Homes of Brewster and Bradford' (Boston: Damrell & Upham). The subjects of these excellent plates are a charming distant view of Scrooby from the Great North Road, proceeding south from Bawtry; the old mill of Scrooby; a farmhouse near the site of Scrooby Manor, the home of William Brewster; a still living tree contemporary with him, with Scrooby Church in the background; the church in Austerfield where William (afterwards Governor) Bradford was baptized; and Bradford's cottage birthplace. The letterpress is as praiseworthy as the etchings, supplying a topographical description so lucid in connection with them as

to make one feel that he had been upon the very spot.

Dean Bradley of course gave permission to erect in Westminster Abbey a memorial to Sir Walter Scott; and the committee, headed by the Marquis of Lothian, has chosen a copy of Sir Francis Chantrey's bust. The sum required for this purchase and for Abbey fees is estimated at £600 to £700, of which more than half has been subscribed in Great Britain. An opportunity for Americans to share in this pious work is offered, and subscriptions not exceeding \$25 individually may be sent to the Boston Public Library, the Boston Athenæum; to Charles W. Sever, Harvard Square, Cambridge; to Mr. Fiske Warren, 220 Devonshire Street; or to Mr. James Murray Kay, 4 Park Street, Boston.

—Dr. William R. Shepherd has published, in the "Columbia University Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law," a six-hundred page "History of Proprietary Government in Pennsylvania," which he modestly characterizes as "merely an outline of its territorial and governmental institutions." He has used almost exclusively original and contemporary material, the chief of which is the great collection of Penn manuscripts in the possession of the Pennsylvania Historical Society. We can do little more than indicate the principal matters treated by Dr. Shepherd and commend his book to students. The work is divided into two parts. Part one comprises an account of the land system and land administration of Pennsylvania, including early stipulations concerning land grants, Indian affairs, and the boundary disputes with Maryland, Connecticut, Virginia, and New York. The account of the dispute with Maryland is much the best narrative we have of that complicated struggle. Part two deals with the government of the province, with separate chapters on the various frames of government, the Council, the "lower counties," the question of oath or affirmation, bills of credit, taxation of the proprietary estates, proprietary instructions, and the powers of the deputy governors, and the relations with the home Government. All of these topics are treated, notwithstanding the author's disclaimer, with great detail. We note that Dr. Shepherd finds "unsatisfactory" the commonly received opinion that Penn "intended to establish a commonwealth of which the governing body should be Quakers." As Proprietor, Penn represented the Crown, and could not at pleasure divest himself of the responsibility involved in that relationship; moreover, his writings show him to have been "distinctly paternalistic in his attitude and tendencies." Penn's later financial difficulties seem to have been attributable principally to his steward, Philip Ford, whose success in "bleeding" his employer emphasizes Macaulay's judgment that Penn "was not a man of strong sense"; but although he left to his sons a contested estate and a heavy burden of debt, making their relations with the province difficult and exposing them to misrepresentation and abuse, their correspondence with their officers in the province contains "few harsh and unkindly expressions," while on several occasions "they displayed a commendable public spirit." It is to be observed that much of the opposition to the younger proprietors came from the Quakers, who resented the desertion of Penn's sons from that sect.

—Franklin's reputation for accuracy and impartiality suffers somewhat at Dr. Shepherd's hands. As the latter shows, "from an

early date the wildest ideas prevailed in Pennsylvania concerning the wealth of the Proprietors." In the appendix to the "Historical Review of the Constitution and Government of Pennsylvania" (1759), published with Franklin's approval, if not actually written by him, is given "an authentic paper" purporting to be "a copy of an original paper drawn by Mr. Thomas Penn himself," in which the value of the Proprietary interest in the province was estimated at about £250,000, but to which the writer of the "Review" adds other estimates sufficient to bring the whole amount up to £10,000,000 sterling. According to Dr. Shepherd (p. 84), "no authentic document of this origin or nature is known to exist." Into the account of events in 1683, in the same work, are introduced disconnected passages from an alleged "remonstrance" of the Assembly in 1704. Dr. Shepherd shows (pp. 303, 304) that this document was in reality "a series of studied insults and exaggerations," and that not only was it never read in the Assembly or formally approved by them, but the minutes of the alleged proceedings were actually interpolated by the Speaker, David Lloyd. There is no proof, also, to sustain the statement that at a conference between the Council and the Assembly, in May, 1689, "several members of the Assembly were induced by the Governor to refuse to give their attendance." In short, the "Historical Review" not only is a partisan production, but, in Dr. Shepherd's opinion, has little value as authentic history. On the other hand, the Proprietors themselves had no love for Franklin. In 1748 Thomas Penn wrote: "He is a dangerous man, and I should be glad if he inhabited any other country, as I believe him of a very uneasy spirit. However, as he is a sort of tribune of the people, he must be treated with regard." Gov. John Penn wrote in 1764: "There will never be any prospect of ease and happiness while that villain [Franklin] has the liberty of spreading about the poison of that inveterate malice and ill nature which is deeply implanted in his own black heart." It was in the election campaign of that year that the Proprietary party, straining every nerve to defeat Franklin and Galloway and divide the Quaker vote, told the Germans how Franklin had said that "the great number of German boors herding together had a tendency to exclude the English language." Without denying that Franklin might have made such a statement, his friends explained it by saying: "'Tis well known that boor means no more than a country farmer, and herding signifies flocking or gathering together, and is applied by the best English writers to harmless doves and to ladies in distress."

—The second volume of the "Histoire de la Langue et de la Littérature Française" (Paris: Armand Colin) surpasses the first in two points—general uniformity of treatment and style, and interest of subject matter. Of its nine chapters, eight are devoted to literary topics (Roman du Renard, Fabliaux, Roman de la Rose, Drama, etc.), while the last traces the development and variations of the language during the corresponding period, namely, the end of the middle ages. Neglect of proportions appears, however, in the space allowed to one or two of the contributors. Unless bulk, rather than quality, is taken as the measure of literary importance, it is not easy to understand why the literature of edification (didactic works, sermons, translations, etc.) should occupy 109 pages, while

the whole of later mediæval French poetry, from Guillaume de Machault to Villon, covering two centuries and including many distinguished names, is compressed into a single chapter of sixty pages, with very scanty quotations; and to Villon himself is allotted the rather niggardly share of five pages. Indeed, so far as this last-mentioned chapter is concerned, the reader will find that a good anthology (such as Crépet's "Les Poètes Français," for example) is an indispensable auxiliary if the originals are not available. No doubt the endeavor to treat the literature objectively, to suppress the personal note, has been conscientiously kept up; but the fact that the names of the contributors are, thus far at least, conspicuous in the learned rather than in the strictly literary world has certainly facilitated the task in this respect.

—The scholars have had their innings; we trust that the *littérateurs* will be given theirs with the Renaissance. For, after all, it seems chimerical to try to exclude personal feelings and taste from discussions full of human significance, and there is interest in observing how already the writers tend to break out of bounds so soon as enthusiasm gets the better of erudition. Thus the learning and critical accuracy shown in M. Bédier's admirable chapter on the Fabliaux are, in our opinion, enhanced by the not wholly objective import of the social and ethical conclusions of the writer. Further, no reader will regret that the editor (Prof. Petit de Julleville) has granted himself the luxury of the following original epigram for the purpose of pointing his explanation of the tendency of early comedies towards satire on feminine frailty, in what seems to us the most compact treatment possible of the mediæval drama: "Si toutes les femmes étaient infidèles, la comédie jouerait les femmes vertueuses" (p. 435). Elsewhere in the volume appear touches of amiable chauvinism which would do credit to a member of "L'Alliance Française." The work therefore bids fair to be much more than a record of facts, a compendium of scholarly hypotheses, and a summary of conventional or traditional judgments. As a mark of the scrupulous care given to details, it may be noted that the two volumes contain but one misprint of any consequence, the spelling of Gower's name as "Glower" (vol. II, p. 526). Special attention must be called to M. Brunot's continuation of the philological part of the work, which is quite equal in thoroughness and accuracy to the introductory essay. The sight of such excellent results as collective scholarship has produced in these two volumes suggests that a union of American and English collaborators for a similar purpose might bear equally good fruit.

—The Royal Historical Commission of Belgium is following the example of the English Master of the Rolls, and is beginning to print the mediæval rentals and account-books of the great monasteries of the Low Countries. "Le Livre de l'Abbé Guillaume de Ryckel (1249-1272)" has just been printed from a MS. in the Library of the University of Liège and issued as an "annexe" to the Bulletin of the Commission; and it is also published separately by Engelcke of Ghent. It contains what the editor, Prof. Henri Pirenne of Ghent, going back to the terminology of an earlier period, designates a "Polyptyque" of the great abbey of Saint-Trond; and that for an interesting period. M. Pirenne points out that the first half of the thirteenth century was an epoch of decadence for the Benedictine monas-

teries, owing to a diversity of causes, chiefly economic. This volume records the efforts, to a large extent successful, of the energetic Abbot, William of Ryckel, to recover the revenues that had been escaping from the grasp of his predecessors, and to establish a system of management more in accord with the changed conditions of the time. Incidentally it gives a good deal of information about mediæval finance and mediæval agrarian conditions. M. Pirenne, who is already favorably known to historical students for his brilliant papers on the origin of municipal constitutions in the *Revue Historique*, has carefully brought together in his introduction all that is known of the personal history of the abbot, and has given a lucid summary of the results of his administration. To those who knew what the like materials are for English history, the value of this Polyptyque can be best expressed by saying that it is worthy to be placed by the side of the 'Domesday of St. Paul's.'

—The latest items of information from the bulletins reporting advances in the higher education of women abroad should serve as a reminder to the more inflammable advocates of the cause that there are two opposite methods of arriving at the common end. While from Zurich, where the number of *Studentinnen* has already reached the respectable figure of 150, news comes of an agitation for the acquisition of the same rights as belong to the vested holders of the field, the *Studenten*, advices from Oxford show a strengthening of the foothold of women students upon university life without agitation or public discussion of any sort. Three years ago the liberal-minded Principal of the Cheltenham Ladies' College responded to a practical demand of the time by opening a house in Oxford for the use, primarily though not exclusively, of students from her own school. This house, which enjoys the honorable and significant distinction of being the first collegiate institution founded at either Oxford or Cambridge in close connection with a girls' school, has now twelve students in residence, has been formally recognized by the Association for the Education of Women in Oxford, and admitted to representation upon its Council for a period of five years, under the corporate title of St. Hilda's Hall. St. Hilda, it will be remembered, was that famous prioress of Whitby whose rule included both monks and nuns, at the time when the priory was celebrated as a school of learning, sending forth bishops and saints from its walls. There is something both conciliatory and stimulating in this association, by a name, of the work of the modern young woman at Oxford with one of the honored traditions of the past. It has doubtless been necessary in many instances to take the kingdom of heaven by violence; but the women students to whom it is freely offered are to be accounted fortunate in being spared the marks and scars of the assault.

—Educated Jews in Europe are determined that the history of their race shall be written by Jews and from a Jewish standpoint. Many books upon branches of the subject have lately appeared, as, for instance, Reinach's 'Fontes Rerum Judaicarum,' to which we gave an extended notice about a year ago. It is evident that the ground must be cleared by numerous monographs before a general history of the Jews in Europe, or even in any one country, can be properly written. To this preliminary task Hebrew scholars and societies are devoting themselves, and one of the

latest results is comprised in Drs. Vogelstein and Rieger's 'Geschichte der Juden in Rom' (Berlin: Mayer & Müller), of which the first volume has reached us. The intention of the authors is to give in the briefest possible space (this volume consists of more than 500 pages) accounts of all the material available for the history of the Jews in Rome, and in particular to present a careful study of the inner life of the oldest Jewish community in Europe. This volume covers four periods, the first being that of the Jews under heathendom, 139 B. C. to 312 A. D., and the other three ending respectively with the years 1000, 1304, and 1420. Following the accounts of the sources for each period are chapters on the private life, manners and morals, finance and literary productivity of the community. There are several appendices, one of which contains inscriptions from the Jewish cemeteries in Rome. The book is written in a simple, straightforward style, and is a thoroughly scholarly production. Its dispassionate treatment, for example, of the evidences about the individuals who are said to have suffered martyrdom or persecution in Rome under the early emperors may be recommended to certain archaeologists of a different creed, whose enthusiasm has sometimes carried them out of the bounds of scientific argument.

THE PAINTINGS OF MEISSONIER.

Meissonier: His Life and his Art. By Valéry C. O. Gréard of l'Académie Française, Vice-Recteur de l'Académie de Paris. With Extracts from his Note-books, and his Opinions and Impressions of Art and Artists, collected by his Wife. Translated from the French by Lady Mary Loyd and Miss Florence Simmonds. With 34 plates and 236 text illustrations. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1896.

THIS is a splendid and, in many ways, an interesting volume, but it is almost the worst and most confused piece of book-making that we have ever seen. First in its table of contents is the memoir by M. Gréard, which, in the words of the author, is neither a continuous biography nor a detailed appreciation of the master's work. It is avowedly founded on the notes and conversations collected by the artist's second wife, and is largely made up of direct quotations from them. It occupies 119 of the 395 pages of the book. Then come 220 pages of the notes themselves, under the general title of "Meissonier's Wisdom," arranged with no discoverable system. They are, indeed, supposed to be arranged topically, under such headings as "Man," "Art," etc., but there seems no reason why almost any of these notes might not as well appear in any other section as in that in which it is to be found. Not only are all the sayings which have been quoted in the memoir to be found again here, but many of them are given several times over in slightly different forms. If Meissonier happened to tell the same story or repeat the same criticism half a dozen times, as might well happen, down it went into the note-book and out it comes again in these pages. There is no indication when the sayings were uttered, and the few letters are undated. After the "Conversations" comes an appendix of 17 pages of smaller type, consisting of a "Notice" by the Perpetual Secretary of the Academy, and this again is founded on the "Conversations," and quotes from them freely. Finally come some thirty pages devoted to a "Catalogue of Meissonier's Works," which is

the only workmanlike thing in the volume. There is no index, and only a rudimentary table of contents. The result is confusion worse confounded. In the labyrinth of repetitions, with its total lack of arrangement and almost total lack of dates, it is impossible to find anything that is wanted. Even in the catalogue of works we have spent a half hour looking in vain for the "1807." A vague general impression of a not very eventful life and some sense of an individuality are all that remain with one.

Neither is the material thus "edited with a pitchfork" very valuable in itself. Meissonier was not a profound critic of art or of life, and his "wisdom" is not of an astonishing sort. He was a man of sound common sense, and of immense strength of purpose and capacity for labor; very vigorous, very determined and tenacious, and very vain; but his mind was neither a deep nor a subtle one. His bulldog pluck and energy carried him to the highest point of material success in his profession, but what he had to say to the world is said in his pictures, and he had nothing to add through the medium of language that is of importance.

It is in the 270 illustrations of this volume, then, that its real importance lies. These illustrations are, on the whole, admirable. Meissonier's works are easy to reproduce, and lose little in the process, nearly all his best qualities being as visible in these cuts as in the originals. Many of the "text illustrations" are as large and almost as good as the photogravure "plates," and Meissonier's detailed and clear-cut style is specially suited to half-tone reproduction. As a collection of reproductions of Meissonier's pictures, therefore, this volume is most interesting, and affords an admirable opportunity for a review of his career.

By the average person who possesses some small knowledge of modern paintings, extreme minuteness of detail is probably considered as the most pronounced characteristic and the greatest merit of Meissonier's art. "Finished like a Meissonier" is a proverbial phrase with such persons, and they are apt to imagine that the qualities of eye and hand which rendered such minuteness possible, and the vast industry which achieved it, are the principal elements in Meissonier's fame and the cause of the phenomenal prices his works have attained. That minuteness and laborious finish are a part of the commercial value of these works it would be absurd to deny, but it may be affirmed that they have practically nothing to do with the painter's artistic reputation. Mere minuteness and the evidence of labor will always have their effect on prices, but they will never make a man Member of the Institute, Grand Officer of the Legion of Honor, or President of the Société Nationale des Beaux-Arts. The extreme "finish" of Meissonier's work is in reality merely the outcome of a physical peculiarity or defect—extreme shortness of sight. In his essay on Bonnat in Vandyke's 'Modern French Masters,' Mr. Blashfield relates how that master, sitting next to M. Maspero at a great dinner one night, said to him:

"Maspero, you who are so near-sighted, tell me how does M—, away down there at the foot of the table, appear to you?"

"Well," replied M. Maspero, "I see a white spot, which I know is his shirtfront, and a flesh-colored spot, which I know is his face."

"Ah," cried Bonnat, "how I wish my pupils could see things in that way!"

Now it is noticeable that the near-sighted men who really "see things in that way"

never paint them so, and the reason is not far to seek. Their manner of painting is conditioned less on what they see in nature than on what they see upon their canvas. All "broad" work in painting—all free and large handling—is intended only for distant effect, and becomes unintelligible when seen near by. The near-sighted painter cannot see his picture at all at the distance for which such painting is intended, and all his work is therefore calculated for close inspection, and is consequently clean, smooth, and detailed in the extreme. If the painter is exceptionally near-sighted, it may even happen that he paints pictures calculated for a nearer vision than is possible to the average human eye, and which can be seen properly only by the aid of a glass. So we have the paradox that those who see least detail in nature, with unaided vision, are precisely those who paint most, and it is the short-sighted and purblind painters who astonish us with their amazing sharpness of delineation. The lengthening of the visual focus in age, as well as growth of mastery and impatience of little things, may well be one of the reasons for the greater breadth of style in the late work of all great painters. Certain it is that even Meissonier's miracles of minuteness are works of his early time, and that while he never became a broad painter (in the purely technical sense), yet his later works seem more capable of imitation by a normal human being than do his earlier. Boldini, though always much freer in touch, was once as fond of a small scale and almost as minute as Meissonier himself. He now paints the size of life and with a large brush.

While the small scale and microscopic workmanship of Meissonier's pictures may therefore be treated as, in a sense, accidental, and while his real merits would have been the same if he had habitually worked in the size of life, yet it is also true that the scale reacted on the manner, and in a way peculiarly suited to the genius of the artist. Meissonier has himself stated with great clearness a truth familiar to all painters, but perhaps not so well known to the public. He says:

"The smaller the scale of one's picture, the more boldly the *relief* must be brought out. The larger the scale, the more it must be softened and diminished. This is an absolutely indispensable rule. A life-size figure treated like one of my small ones would be unendurable."

He does not attempt to give any reason for this rule, nor have we time and space to attempt to find one now. The reader must be content, for the present, to accept the fact that this rule exists. Its acceptance will help in the understanding of Meissonier's work, and of the way in which the accident of scale cooperated with the temperament of the painter to produce the style we know so well.

This style was formed in all its essentials singularly early. From the very first the great little pictures seem as masterly as anything their author afterwards produced. His life was a long one, and was filled with untiring study and industry, yet he never did things better than he did at first; he only did other things as well. How this quite prodigious mastery was attained so early is a mystery. It would almost seem as if this artist had never had to learn, had had no period of uncertainty and struggle—had almost been born a master. In the present volume the dates of his work are hardly ever given, and the quality of his production is so even that internal evidence is of little avail. The subjects change, but not the manner. From the beginning of his career to the end the concep-

tion of art is identical, the methods are the same, the achievement is almost uniform.

It may even be doubted if some of Meissonier's earlier work is not the best that he has left, merely because the subjects and the scale of that work are admirably fitted for the display of his qualities and the minimizing of his limitations. It is the admirable series of "Smokers" and "Readers," "Painters" and "Connoisseurs," which give the fullest measure of his powers and the least hint of his shortcomings; which made his reputation and perhaps are likeliest to maintain it. These pictures are in the purest vein of genre painting, and immediately suggest comparison with the wonderful little masters of Holland. At first Meissonier was considered as a reviver of Dutch art, and that he was a great admirer of that art there can be no doubt. Upon examination, however, it soon becomes visible that the differences between him and his models are as great as the resemblances. First of these differences is a fundamental one of point of view. The Dutch masters were pure painters, and their subjects were strictly contemporary. They contented themselves with looking about them and painting what interested them in what they saw. Meissonier only two or three times treated contemporary subjects, and then when something intensely dramatic or historically important attracted him. You would look in vain in his work for any such record of the ordinary life of the nineteenth century as the Dutchmen have given us of that of the seventeenth. Meissonier was such a master of the antiquarianism he practised—he managed to enter so thoroughly within the skin of his two or three favorite epochs—that he almost deceives us at times; but he was nevertheless essentially an antiquarian, and, therefore, his work never has the spontaneity of the old work.

Another difference is in the quality of drawing. Meissonier was a wonderfully accurate draughtsman. His drawing is composed of equal parts of astonishingly clear and accurate vision and of deep scientific acquirement. It is not the drawing of the great stylists, the masters of beautiful and significant line, but it is marvellously forceful and just. The drawing of Terburg is equally accurate, but seems to have no formula, no method, no ascertainable knowledge behind it. It seems unconscious and naïve in a way which that of Meissonier never approaches. Finally, in color and in the management of light, Meissonier cannot be compared to any one of half-a-dozen Dutch painters. His tone is almost always a little foxy, his handling a little dry. Sometimes in interiors with only one or two figures his realistic force of imitation of that which was before him almost carried him to a fine rendering even of light and color. He had built his picture before he painted it, and had only to copy what was directly under his eye, and he did this so well as almost to become a colorist and a luminist. It is only when he tries to paint open-air subjects and larger compositions that his defects become very apparent.

His merits are all to be included in the two great ones of thoroughness and accuracy. He never shirked any difficulty or avoided any study, was never sloppy or formless or vague. His knowledge of costume and furniture was only less wonderful than his grasp of character and his perfect rendering of form. He was a thorough realist, with little imagination and less sense of beauty, but with an insatiable appetite for and a marvellous digestion of concrete fact. His work is amazing in

its industry, but his industry never becomes mere routine. His detail is never mere finikin particularity of touch, but is patient investigation of truth. At his best he is hardly sufficiently to be admired; but he awakens only admiration, never emotion. His drawing is absolute, his relief startling, he almost gives the illusion of nature; but he never evokes a vision of beauty or charms one into a dream.

Meissonier's qualities are fully sufficient to account for the admiration of the public and the universal respect of his brother artists; and as long as he was content to be a genre painter they were sufficient to make him easily the first genre painter of his time, if not quite (as an artist has recently called him) the "greatest genre painter of any age." In his later work they are less sufficient. He became ambitious, he wanted to be a great historical painter, to paint a "Napoleonic Cycle," to decorate the walls of the Pantheon. He transferred his personages to the open air, he enlarged his canvases and multiplied his figures, he attempted violent movement. His methods, which had been admirably suited to the production of almost perfect little pictures of tranquil indoor life, were not so adequate to the rendering of his new themes. His prodigious industry, his exhaustive accuracy, his vigor and his conscientiousness were as great as ever, but the most exact study of nature in detail would not give the effect of open air, the most rigorous scientific analysis of the movements of the horse would not make him move, the accumulation of small figures would not look like an army. It was in vain that he built a railway to follow the action of a galloping horse, or bought a grain field that he might see just what it would be like when a squadron had charged through it. What he produced may possibly be demonstrably true, but it does not look true.

The best of these more ambitious works is perhaps the "1814." The worst is certainly the "1807," which has found a home in the Metropolitan Museum. This picture is almost an entire failure, and yet it possesses every one of the qualities which made Meissonier's greatness in as high a degree as any earlier work. The industry, the strenuous exactness, the thoroughness, the impeccable draughtsmanship, the sharpness of relief, are all here at their greatest. The amount of labor that the picture represents is simply appalling, and it is almost all wasted because it is not the kind of labor that was wanted. On all these figures not a gaiter-button is wanting, and the total result of all this addition of detail is simple chaos. The idea of the composition is fine, but the effect is missed. Looked at close at hand, each head, each hand, each strap and buckle is masterly, but, at a distance sufficiently great to permit the whole canvas to be taken in at one glance, nothing is seen but a meaningless glitter. It is not only true that a life-size figure treated like one of Meissonier's small ones "would be unendurable," but it is equally true that a great number of such small figures will not make a large picture. The sharp and hard detail which was in place in his early canvases, is fatal to the unity and breadth necessary to a large composition. It is equally fatal to the sense of movement. The "Smokers" and "Readers" were doing as little as possible, and one felt that one had plenty of time to notice their coat-buttons and the smallest details of their costume; the cuirassiers of "1807" are dashing by at a furious gallop, and the eye resents the realization of detail that it could not possibly perceive. Even

if the action of the horses in the picture were correct (and, for once, it is not), nothing could make them move when the eye is thus arrested by infinitesimal minutiae.

Such was Meissonier: within his limits an almost perfect painter, and, even when he overstepped them, one whose terrible conscientiousness in the exercise of amazing ability will always merit deep respect. He thoroughly earned the honors he received, the fortune he acquired and squandered, and the immortality of which he is reasonably certain.

THE BRONTË CIRCLE.

Charlotte Brontë and her Circle. By Clement K. Shorter. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1896. Pages xi, 512. Portraits and other illustrations.

"This is not a biography, but a bundle of correspondence," writes Mr. Shorter in bringing his work to a conclusion. It is, however, a bundle of correspondence exceeding in interest most such collections brought to light forty years after the death of the central figure to which they relate. The book owes its inception to the "kindly pressure" of a friend, and its value mainly to the material put at the editor's disposal by the Rev. Arthur Bell Nicholls, husband of Charlotte Brontë (now incumbent of a parish in Ireland), by Miss Ellen Nussey, and by the family of the late Mr. W. S. Williams.

"It has been with extreme unwillingness that Mr. Nicholls has broken the silence of forty years, and he would not even now have consented to the publication of certain letters concerning his marriage, had he not been aware that these letters were already privately printed and in the hands of not less than eight or ten people."

We have here altogether about 380 letters, separated and classified under seventeen different heads, with entertaining biographical introductions, such as "Patrick Brontë and Maria his Wife"; "Childhood," "Brussels," "Patrick Bramwell Brontë," "Emily Jane Brontë," "Anne Brontë," "Ellen Nussey," "Curates at Haworth," "Charlotte Brontë's Lovers," "Literary Ambitions." Over 300 of the letters are from Charlotte herself—160 of them to her bosom friend Ellen Nussey, 100 to one of her publishers, Mr. Williams. In these pages Charlotte, and Emily, and Anne appear to live again—more ordinary mortals, perhaps, than those limned by Mrs. Gaskell; not less interesting, perhaps more lovable. A certain weight is lifted off our minds concerning them. Their lives, if short, were full of occupation and intensity to themselves; less sad, apart from the tragedy of Bramwell's intemperance, than we had hitherto been led to suppose. Their father was not at all the bear we had pictured; if he did not invite much confidence, he inspired love and respect. It is no small tribute to his true character and disposition that Mr. Nicholls, whose suit for Charlotte he had repulsed for more than a year, and whose resignation of a curacy under him he was practically compelled, after Charlotte's death, lived on alone with him until his death in 1861. Mr. Shorter pays ample tribute to Mrs. Gaskell:

"In the whole of English biographical literature there is no book that can compare in widespread interest with the *Life of Charlotte Brontë* by Mrs. Gaskell. . . . She brought to bear upon the biography . . . all those literary gifts which had made the charm of her seven volumes of romance. . . . Apart from these letters, a journey in the footsteps, as it were, of Mrs. Gaskell, reveals

to us the remarkable conscientiousness with which she set about her task. . . . She spared no pains to find out facts. . . . She visited every spot associated with the name. . . . She wrote countless letters to her friends."

He then goes on to give the other side of the picture. Her work was undertaken largely at Mr. Brontë's desire, yet

"although we, who read Mrs. Gaskell's memoir, have every reason to be thankful for Mr. Brontë's decision, peace of mind would undoubtedly have been more assured to Charlotte Brontë's surviving relatives had the most rigid silence been maintained. The book, when it appeared in 1857, gave infinite pain to a number of people, including Mr. Brontë and Mr. Nicholls; and Mrs. Gaskell's subsequent experiences had the effect of persuading her that all biographical literature was intolerable and undesirable."

The humiliations to which Mrs. Gaskell was subjected, having, through her solicitors, publicly to apologize for certain statements, and to excise in subsequent editions portions of the first, arose from her having implicitly, without inquiry, taken as truth statements made to her by Charlotte Brontë. (It reminds us of the case of Mrs. Stowe and Lady Byron.) This is all now matter of literary history. No trained writer like Mrs. Gaskell would act so now. This is only one of the respects in which a careful perusal of Mr. Shorter's book has reminded us of the manner in which the world has sobered and been made more cautious than in 1857. Mrs. Gaskell paid heavily for her mistake. We confess we believe Mr. Shorter would have shown better taste in not again raking up and going over the story. He appears to us too much inclined to seek occasion for blaming her. The insertion on page 130 of the *Athenæum's* repudiation of her is quite unnecessary. At page 49 we read concerning portions of a letter: "The passage in brackets is quoted, not quite accurately, by Mrs. Gaskell." On comparison, the only difference we can find is the presence of an extra word, "being," which was wanting in the original and in no degree alters the sense. At page 294 we are given a letter which we are told was "partly printed in a mangled form in Mrs. Gaskell's memoir," and at page 432 "is a portion of a letter upon which Mrs. Gaskell practised considerable excisions." Again, on comparison, we find that in both these instances it would have been impossible, with the persons then living, for Mrs. Gaskell to quote more than she did.

The correspondence of which the book is composed might well have been broken into chapters according with different phases in the lives of Charlotte Brontë and her family, and introducing sketches of the different personalities as they came into her life. As it is, the letters are arranged, not in order of date, but of subject, often but of one subject of the many of which they treat. The narrative is thus broken up and confused. Again and again, at long intervals, the same incidents and interests, come up. In one chapter the illness and death of persons are referred to, and in subsequent chapters they are alive and well. Taking the century of letters from Charlotte to Mr. Williams, we find them upon or between the following dates in chapters in the following order: 1849-1850, 1848, 1847-1849, 1850, 1849-1852, 1847-1851, 1848-1853, 1847-1849, 1847-1850. Those to Ellen Nussey are in tolerable order: 1832 to 1849 up to chapter vii.; then we have 1831-1852, 1833-1849, 1851, 1840-1844, 1844-1852, 1851, 1849, 1850-1851, 1844-1855.

Enough of criticism. In the rich treat Mr.

Shorter has laid before us the only difficulty is to select the best portions. The book cannot but lead to renewed interest in the Brontës, their works, and everything that has been written about them. Charlotte Brontë's friendship with Ellen Nussey was perhaps the most enduring element in the web of her life.

"Of all her friends, Ellen Nussey must always have the foremost place in our esteem. Like Mary Taylor, she made Charlotte's acquaintance when, at fifteen years of age, she first went to Roe Head School. . . . Ellen Nussey and Charlotte Brontë corresponded with a regularity which one imagines would be impossible had they both been born half a century later. The two girls loved one another profoundly." "Ellen Nussey, as we have seen, accompanied Anne Brontë to Scarborough, and was at her death-bed. She attended Charlotte's wedding, and lived to mourn over her tomb. For forty years she has been the untiring advocate and staunch champion, hating to hear a word in her great friend's dispraise, loving to note the glorious recognition, of which there has been so rich and full a harvest. That she still lives to receive our reverent gratitude for preserving so many interesting traits of the Brontës, is matter for full and cordial congratulation."

In a letter to Mr. Williams, under date of January 3, 1850, Charlotte writes:

"Friendship, however, is a plant which cannot be forced. True friendship is no ground, springing in a night and withering in a day. When first I saw Ellen I did not care for her; we were school-fellows. In course of time we learned each other's faults and good points. We were contrasts—still we suited. Affection was first a germ, then a sapling, then a strong tree. Now, no new friend, however lofty or profound in intellect—not even Miss Martineau herself—could be to me what Ellen is; yet she is no more than a conscientious, observant, calm, well-bred Yorkshire girl. She is without romance."

Charlotte Brontë had no illusions regarding herself. Declining an offer of marriage in 1839, she writes: "As for me, you do not know me; I am not the serious, grave, cool-headed individual you suppose; you would think me romantic and eccentric; you would say I was satirical and severe." She took no interest in and understood nothing of her father's country. "With the French and Irish I have no sympathy." Her letters from Brussels, apart from "Villette," show she was incapable of seeing the good in a Catholic people. She exhibits practical good sense in business matters. Writing to Miss Woolner in 1846: "The York and Midland is, as you say, a very good line, yet I confess to you I should wish for my part to be wise in time. I cannot think that even the very best lines will continue for many years at their present premiums, and I have been most anxious for us to sell our shares ere it be too late, and to secure the proceeds in some safer, if, for the present, less profitable investment." Yet she does not appear to have succeeded in making particularly remunerative bargains with her publishers. A footnote tells us: "Miss Brontë was paid £1,500 in all for her three novels, and Mr. Nicholls received an additional £250 for the copyright of 'The Professor.'"

In connection with an incident that appeared in a subsequent novel, we are tempted to quote the following somewhat long extract from a letter to Emily from Brussels in 1843. Charlotte spends a holiday afternoon wandering about the suburbs, and proceeds:

"When I came back it was evening; but I had such a repugnance to return to the house which contained nothing that I cared for, I still kept threading the streets. I found myself opposite to Ste. Gudule, and the bell, whose voice you know, began to toll for the evening salut. I went in quite alone, wandered about the aisles till vespers began,

... I stayed until they were over; still I could not leave the church. . . . An odd whim came into my head. . . . I felt I did not care what I did, provided it was not absolutely wrong, and that it served to vary my life and yield a moment's interest. I took a fancy to change myself into a Catholic and go and make a real confession, to see what it was like. . . . I had to kneel there some ten minutes waiting. . . . At last that [penitent] went away, and a little wooden door inside the grating opened. . . . I was obliged to begin. . . . I commenced by saying I was a foreigner, and had been brought up a Protestant. The priest asked if I was a Protestant then. I somehow could not tell a lie, and said 'Yes.' He replied that in that case I could not 'jouir du bonheur de la confession'; but I was determined to confess, and at last he said he would allow me, because it might be the first step towards returning to the true church. I actually did confess—a real confession."

The letters to Mr. Williams are from a literary point of view the most interesting. They abound in good sense.

"Do not wish to keep them [his daughters] at home. Believe me, teachers may be hard worked, ill paid, and despised; but the girl who stays at home doing nothing is worse off than the hardest wrought and worse paid drudge of a school. . . . Give their existence some object, their time some occupation, or the peevishness of disappointment and the listlessness of idleness will infallibly degrade their nature."

"I smile at you again for supposing that I could be annoyed by what you say regarding your religious and philosophical views; that I could blame you for not being able, when you look amongst sects and creeds, to discover any one which you can exclusively and implicitly adopt as yours. I perceive myself that some light falls on earth from heaven—that some rays from the shrine of truth pierce the darkness of this life and world, but they are few, faint, and scattered, and who, without presumption, can assert that he has found the only true path upwards?"

In closing this book, as in closing Mrs. Gaskell's memoir, the reader will perhaps exclaim, "Oh! had she lived!" We are inclined to agree with Mr. Shorter: "It is not easy to believe that the future had any great things in store." "More she could not have done with equal effect had she lived to be eighty."

The Ship's Company, and Other Sea People.
By Lieut.-Com. J. D. Jerrold Kelley, U. S. Navy. Harper & Bros. 1896.

"SIR," said Dr. Johnson, "no man will be a sailor who has contrivance enough to get himself in jail." Dr. Johnson uttered this aphorism from a knowledge of the nature of a sailor's life of the period in which he lived. Then the career of a mariner was the very sum of hardships and privations. In England the press-gang was in vigorous operation to procure recruits for ships of war. Not only were the highways and byways raked to secure men, but ships homeward bound, in sight of port, after a voyage of two or three years, were boarded and their crews seized and consigned to naval vessels, to serve for years with out once putting their feet on shore. More over, merchant ships were small, ill equipped, and inadequately provisioned; and scurvy, against which no safeguard was instituted, decimated the crews of vessels engaged in long voyages. Nor on ships of war were any precautions taken to avert the attacks of this terrible disease. In the Seven Years' War, in which only 1,512 English seamen and marines were killed or wounded, 133,000 died of disease or were missing. Moreover, flogging was the recognized mode of punishment for sailors in the naval and merchant service. In both, hardly a day elapsed that men were not triced

up to the gratings and their backs furrowed with the cat-o'-nine-tails.

In our time all this is changed. Seamen are now protected by adequate laws from cruel treatment, ships are large, well equipped, and amply provisioned. Moreover, steam has so largely superseded sails as a means of propulsion that voyages are short and stops in port much prolonged. The use of steam has also greatly changed the character of both officers and crews. While seamanship so long as men float upon the ocean will be a necessary qualification, a wider and more scientific knowledge is requisite. Quick decision, iron will, and unflinching courage are, under the new dispensation, no less obligatory. Indeed, the strain entailed upon the faculties of officers in charge of our swift ocean liners, moving at a speed of twenty knots an hour or more, with the responsibility for the safety of from 500 to 1,000 human beings, demands in the highest degree the qualities above mentioned.

Lieut.-Com. Kelley, in his 'Ship's Company,' graphically describes the nature of the duties of the officers, above and below, on our swift ocean liners. He reveals the dangers that encompass the vessel, and the ceaseless vigilance and intelligence required to bring to a successful conclusion a voyage of only from five to seven days' duration. In the chapter entitled "The Squadron Cruise" he employs a different note. This relates to the pleasures of yachting, its even, uneventful, and joyous life. In "Midshipmen, Old and New," he records the difference in training of naval youngsters in the past and to-day. He emphasizes the multitudinous accomplishments necessary to those who man the modern ship of war. The naval officer of to-day not only must be a seaman, but must be equipped with a thorough knowledge of mechanics.

The remaining chapters of Mr. Kelley's book are replete with interest. Altogether he reveals how far present conditions of the sea are disaffected from those of the past, from those of Marryat, Cupples, and other writers. Even with the handicap of the loss of picturesque that formerly attached to the sailor or man (though more in the imagination than in reality), Mr. Kelley is by no means inferior to his distinguished predecessors in delineating with vigor and force all that relates to the modern ship's company. He finds in them ample material to compose a volume which, from the point of view of contrast and literary merit, elevates him to a high level as a writer on sea topics.

The illustrations are very numerous, interesting, well drawn, and reproduced. They add largely to the attractiveness of the book.

Grasses of North America. By W. J. Beal, Ph.D., Professor of Botany and Forestry in Michigan Agricultural College. Two volumes. Henry Holt & Co. 1896.

THE first volume of this useful work was published ten years ago. It deals with the general physiology of grasses and with the application of physiological laws to profitable cultivation. The management of grass-lands is discussed in a practical way, and a good deal of attention is given to the foes of the grass-family, such as insects and fungi. To make the volume of even greater use to farmers, the matter of clovers is brought within the scope of the work.

In the volume just issued Professor Beal has considered the grasses from a descriptive and systematic point of view, and he closes his work by a short account of their geographical

distribution. There is also a bibliography. The whole treatise represents an immense amount of labor carried on under exceptional difficulties. The author says in his preface that he found it "necessary to limit the time for study to a few weeks each year. Little opportunity could be found for this work while college classes were to be instructed; besides, a considerable portion of the long vacation was claimed for participating in farmers' institutes." The treatise, therefore, embodies disjointed studies which have been coördinated and united as best they may. In such a work we must not look for the qualities which characterize systematic descriptive botany prosecuted without a break.

When the construction of a volume extends over so long a period as ten years, we expect naturally to find some lack of proportion and perspective, and we may not hope with confidence that all of the latter portions will be wholly consistent with the earlier parts. Professor Beal has, however, reduced these faults to a minimum, and, considering his absorbing duties in another field which is emphatically his own, he has made a substantial contribution to agrostology. This contribution consists chiefly in the enormous number of measurements of different parts of grasses which he has most patiently and conscientiously conducted. The treatise will be valued as a useful record of accurate work in this direction, and will long serve as a treasury from which compilers will be likely to draw.

From a hint in the preface we infer that the author was disappointed in the matter of illustrations. Those which are given are only 126, to illustrate 151 genera; a scant supply at best. They are mostly accurate and telling, but in mechanical execution are not worthy of the text. A few of them look as if they had already done yeoman service in agricultural bulletins, and the lettering of the figures seems to secure distinctness at the hazard of destroying all artistic effect.

The two volumes must be taken together in order to show the true character of the task accomplished by Professor Beal in this department of botany. The author is an intensely practical man, who has devoted his energies untiringly to the improvement of agriculture in Michigan, and he has had the satisfaction of knowing that his work has told wholly for good. It must be a great relief to him to realize that this treatise is now happily off his hands, and that he can apply himself to forestry, a crying need in his State, while his two volumes can do their own work in a wider field than a single commonwealth. He can feel assured that the completed work will be acceptable especially to those whose interest in grasses is largely industrial.

In Buncombe County. By Maria Louise Pool. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co. 1896.

THIS book is Miss Pool's gage flung down before Miss Murfree. She challenges her boldly by name. "Does Miss Murfree know? Are those people on the Tennessee side different from the men and women here? She has a glamour, a mist from her much-described hills and valleys that obscures clear sight." The unclouded vision of Miss Pool then reports to us such characterizations as these: "a vile, low, licentious, sly people, . . . singularly devoid of any capability to understand anything different from themselves." This cool flogging of the only possession of the North Carolina mountaineers—their good name—tempts a reviewer who has lived among

them to question whether the snap-shot photographs of a scamperer like Miss Pool are really more accurate than the idealizations of a lifelong devotee. Certainly the friendly mountain folk, who show by so many traits the Scotch-Irish stock from which they are sprung, and who exhibit in no small degree the virtues traditionally ascribed to those who breathe mountain air, would be puzzled to recognize themselves in the product of Miss Pool's kodak. It is comforting to reflect that they will never be called upon to make the identification—though one cannot be too sure of this in these days when they have their college settlements, and hold weekly debates on free silver and the Armenian question.

For the hardened realist that Miss Pool professes herself to be, a singular gleam of romance illumines her page. She does not venture to discover a living mountain beauty among the "thin-lipped, lascivious-mouthed, bony-faced women," but to the dead mother of 'Ristus is granted a posthumous praise. From her the boy had his "warm-tinted, lovely eyes," and the artist who had loved her for a summer and then ridden away, is brought back by a scrupulous Providence to die under the haunting eyes of his unacknowledged son. It is to be feared that a bit of Miss Murfree's mist got over to the North Carolina side and into Miss Pool's eyes.

For the rest, her book is pleasantly written, with slight descriptive touches that are admirable in their restraint. It betrays its date by being of that time long since past when there was an Asheville Junction. A millionaire's touch has now transformed that into something rich and strange, and, as nearly as we can make out, on the spot where Amabel's redbird made its dash for freedom, now rises a millionaire's church with its New York tenor and choir-master.

Constitutional History of the United States.
By George Ticknor Curtis. Vol. II. Edited by Joseph Culbertson Clayton. Harper & Bros. 1896.

THE first volume of Curtis's 'History of the Constitution of the United States' was published in 1854, and the second in 1858. In 1889 a revised edition in one volume appeared, with the promise of a second volume covering the period from the adoption of the Constitution to the close of the civil war. The task was left unfinished at the author's death in 1894, but the more or less complete manuscript of thirteen of the proposed seventeen chapters was found among his papers, and has been edited by Mr. Clayton at the request of Mr. Curtis's family. The editor has confined himself, so far as the body of the work is concerned, to "putting the posthumous material in condition for publication," although he has taken the trouble to verify dates and citations, and has corrected some manifest clerical errors. A few of the latter have escaped his attention, and one or two of the later chapters show lack of the revision to which the author would doubtless have subjected them. In the main, however, the completed portions of the volume, though but a fragment, probably stand substantially as they were intended to appear.

From the first, Curtis's History of the Constitution was held in deservedly high repute. Without parade of details, its judicial air, its dialectic skill, its broad generalizations, and its earnest and rather formal style made especial appeal to lawyers and judges, and secured for it the honor of frequent citation by

the courts as a "standard authority." To a considerable extent these qualities characterize the posthumous volume before us; nevertheless, we can but think that most readers will lay down the book with a distinct feeling of disappointment. The reason is not far to seek. With the exception of the first two chapters, which are a luminous setting forth of the contrast between the development of political opinion concerning the nature of the Constitution and the judicial views of it, there is little that has not been said more than once before, and, it must be confessed, said rather more interestingly. One realizes afresh how much the Constitution has been studied, and how clearly it has been expounded, when a historian of Curtis's ability can improve so slightly upon the old and tell us so little that is new.

The chapters treating of the acuter phases of the slavery struggle, of secession, and of the Reconstruction legislation are hardly of a piece with the earlier parts of the book. They are able and vigorous, but they befit the advocate rather than the impartial and philosophic historian. The severe criticism of the abolitionists for their attitude towards the Constitution recalls the denunciation which Curtis himself had to endure from the abolitionists in 1851, when, as United States Commissioner in Boston, he caused the fugitive slave Thomas Sims to be returned to his master. Curtis is convinced that the civil war might have been averted if the North had but made the concessions that it ought to have made, while the conduct of the Republican party during the Reconstruction period, and the creation of the Electoral Commission in 1876, are unsparingly condemned. Truly, some ghosts die hard. No doubt there was quite enough in the political events of that troublous time for which it would be hard to find either constitutional or moral justification, but only a narrow and technical view of constitutional principles can approve wholesale disparagement of the acts of a government suddenly compelled to fight for its life, and afterwards feeling its way, with no sufficient precedents to guide it, to a readjustment of the relations of the rebellious States to the Union. Lawyers have never had much difficulty in proving that Secession was illegal and Reconstruction unconstitutional, nor political philosophers in showing how both might have been avoided. The problem of the United States, however, was to prevent Secession from becoming effectual, and, after that had been accomplished, to restore normal conditions; and if, in the struggle, much was done which is now difficult of defence, it was demonstrated that, in times of great national exigency, the lawyer's view of constitutional powers and limitations must often yield somewhat to the force of sheer necessity.

Somewhat less than half of the 780 pages of the volume are devoted to an appendix, consisting chiefly of documents designed, as Mr. Clayton says, "as an apparatus for students." Most of these are so readily accessible that the propriety of reprinting them here is not obvious. Special interest, however, attaches to Curtis's argument for the plaintiff in the Dred Scott case, a note in reply to criticisms of his views of the Constitution by John G. Tyler, and his much-censured oration of July 4, 1863, before the municipal authorities of Boston. The analytical index to the Constitution appears to be taken from the Revised Statutes of 1878, although no source is indicated, and the same work seems to have been drawn upon for the text of the Constitution

with references to judicial decisions, although Mr. Clayton has cited many additional cases. The volume has a full index.

Shakespeare's Heroes on the Stage. By Charles E. L. Wingate. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

MR. WINGATE'S 'Shakespeare's Heroes on the Stage' is a companion volume to his 'Shakespeare's Heroines on the Stage,' and is constructed upon a similar plan, which consists in putting the name of a celebrated character at the head of a chapter, and grouping under it biographical sketches, anecdotes, and criticisms of the most famous actors who have appeared in it. The manifest disadvantage of this system is that it is necessarily fragmentary and disconnected. The players of different eras are all mixed up together—the same names appearing over and over again in different parts of the book—and the mind of the reader is confused by a vast amount of repetition and a chronological tangle which is not resolved by the faithful insertion of dates. These faults are all the more serious because the book, presumably, is intended only for persons possessing little or no general knowledge of dramatic history, the material which it contains being, for the most part, a digest from such familiar authorities as the *Tatler*, *Pepys*, *Dr. Doran*, *Hazlitt*, *Macready*, *Barry Cornwall*, *George Henry Lewes*, *Leigh Hunt*, *Dunlap*, and others. These excerpts and paraphrases are good enough in their way, but are not particularly valuable except as an inducement to the reader to go to the original source. The interpolated anecdotes, when they are not apocryphal, are exceedingly venerable and well worn. What original matter there is consists mainly of reflections by the compiler which can be regarded only in the light of padding.

If Mr. Wingate was in want of matter to fill up his allotted number of pages, he might have extended his researches with profit to his readers, if not to himself. His "heroes" are *Othello*, *Iago*, *Lear*, *Shylock*, *Coriolanus*, *Macbeth*, *Hamlet*, and *Richard III*. He has nothing to say about famous impersonations, old or modern, of *Falstaff*, *Benedick*, *Romeo*, *Mercutio*, *King John*, *Wolsey*, *Brutus*, *Antony*, or other less prominent Shaksperian parts. The mention of these omissions is, perhaps, a sufficient comment upon the incompleteness of his work and the misleading comprehensiveness of his title.

It is only fair to add that his record, as far as it goes, appears to be fairly accurate and full. Indeed, the trouble which he has been at to preserve the names of a host of forgotten or insignificant players is wholly superfluous. Among the most interesting features of his book are the old portraits, some of which are uncommon, while all are well reproduced. All that remains to be said is that his literary style is agreeably fluent, if rather reckless—easy writing without being hard reading—and that he has taken the pains to prepare a good index.

Intermezz: Kunstgeschichtliche Studien von A. Furtwängler. Leipzig and Berlin: Giescke & Devrient; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 1896. 4to, pp. 92.

THE present volume, the latest from Professor Furtwängler's tireless pen, consists of four short essays and an excursus. The first essay presents, with the help of four fine photo-engravings and several half-tones, a hitherto un-

known bronze head, the property of the Duke of Devonshire. This head is regarded by the author as an unquestionable Greek original of about 460 B. C., and as in all probability the work of Pythagoras of Rhegium, an artist of first-rate importance, the mint marks of whose genius Prof. Furtwängler believes himself to have discovered. The second essay is devoted to the Minerva Medici of the École des Beaux Arts. This statue was discussed by the author in his recent 'Masterpieces of Greek Sculpture.' It was then for him a Roman copy of a bronze original, the Athena Promachos of the Athenian Acropolis, which, as he then argued, was the work of the elder Praxiteles. Now, after a renewed examination under more favorable conditions, it has become for him a Greek original, the long-lost central figure of the eastern pediment of the Parthenon. The third essay brings to light an all but unnoticed frieze in the Louvre, shows convincingly, so far as one can judge without independent examination, that it is a pendant to the well-known frieze in Munich with the nuptial procession of Poseidon and Amphitrite, and assigns the two to an altar before the temple of Neptune, built by Cn. Domitius Ahenobarbus, between 35 and 32 B. C. The fourth essay vindicates an Augustan date for the Roman monument at Adamklois in the Dobrudja, first made known to the world in 1895, and treats of types of Germanic and other barbarian tribes represented thereon. The excursus brings a powerful battery of arguments into the field against the genuineness of the "Tiara of Saitapharnes" and the associated gold objects purchased by the Louvre last spring, of which M. Salomon Reinach has well informed our readers.

These papers exhibit Professor Furtwängler's characteristic and extraordinary qualities—his unparalleled familiarity with Greek and Roman monuments of every class, his ingenuity, audacity, and self-confidence in hypothesis, his admirable faculty of lucid and telling exposition. Like everything that he writes, they are full of invaluable instruction for students sufficiently advanced to know how to judge them. To mere amateurs, unable to distinguish between break-neck conjecture and demonstrated certainty, they are likely to do as much harm as good.

Mere Literature, and Other Essays. By Woodrow Wilson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

This volume contains eight essays, all but one of which, that on Burke, had already been printed in magazines and reviews. This new essay, with the one which precedes it on Bagehot, are the only really substantial contributions to criticism in the volume. Mr. Wilson is primarily a political writer, and in his study of Burke he writes about what he understands. Most of the other essays belong to a species of writing of which there is still a good deal published every year, chiefly in this country, and which is on this account worth a brief analysis.

The first essay is on "Mere Literature," and is a protest against scientific contempt for literature as such. What Mr. Wilson wants to show is that there is something in literature above and beyond science. The idea is an old and, we should have supposed, an outworn one. But, waiving this, the method of treatment is also antique and imitative. It is a specimen of the half-rhapsodical, half-metaphysical essay transmitted to us from an elder day—let us say, the day of De Quincey or of Coleridge. It deals much in

abstractions; it consists, in fact, in great measure, of statements, preferably antithetical, about abstractions such as Wit, Humor, Invention, Fancy, Imagination, Literature, Poetry, Scholarship, etc. "Seers" are often referred to as a superior order of men into whose intimacy the author has been admitted, and he himself writes a little as if seated upon a tripod. This method of writing has never had any tendency to convert the scientific man from thinking meanly of "mere literature"; it inclines him rather to laugh at the whole thing as a *reductio ad absurdum* of literature. Such literature, he would say, consists mainly of a collection of logical fallacies. What the author actually does is to take an abstract noun, define it in such a way as to suit a preconceived theory, and then, from the definition, demonstrate the truth of the theory. If, after the theory is demonstrated, facts suggest themselves which are at war with it, then there must be something doubtful or wrong about the facts, because the theory is already established.

For instance, Mr. Wilson, wishing to contrast literature and scholarship, declares that the groundwork of the former is "not erudition, but reflection and fancy." Scholars "*do not reflect*"; they label, group kind with kind, set forth in schemes, expound with dispassionate method." It would necessarily follow that scholars are incapable of producing true literature. But, having established this, Mr. Wilson suddenly remembers that Gibbon, who was a scholar, was the author of a book commonly regarded as having the marks of literature, and who certainly was capable of reflection. He gets over the difficulty very neatly by declaring that "if we continue Gibbon in his fame, it will be for love of his art, not for worship of his scholarship"; i. e., it may be that it is all a mistake to think Gibbon a great writer; but, if a great writer, we must remember that it was not through scholarship, but through literary gifts, that he was a great writer. This is very complete, but we greatly fear that, among the maliciously scientific, it will be derided as an excellent specimen of what might strictly be called mere literature.

But we have a more serious fault to find with Mr. Wilson than this. It is that he systematically teaches principles which we believe to be radically erroneous. In his second essay, "The Author Himself," he undertakes to encourage individualism in literature, and recommends a "certain helpful ignorance" as tending to foster it. "It is best for the author to be born away from literary centres, or to be excluded from their ruling set if he be born in them. It is best that he start out with his thinking, not knowing how much has been thought and said about everything." Now this is written under the idea that in literary centres there is a set which is hostile to novelty and individuality, and is doing its utmost to stifle both. Such may have been the fact once, but it long since ceased to be true. There is a high premium on individuality in the literary market, and any one who can open a new vein need not despair of attracting attention. To tell him, however, that ignorance will help him is to give him the very worst advice in the world. He cannot know too much of what others have done. His knowledge will no more take away the edge of his individuality than it will take away his appetite for dinner.

But Mr. Wilson is one of those who think that all "centres" are bad. His philosophy is eminently rural. He thinks that all the best lawyers are to be found "in the coun-

try." We hardly know of a single lawyer of distinction in the Northern United States who is a product of country life, and the tendency to the cities is so strong that we could mention country districts where the places made vacant by the death of country lawyers of the old school are filled by the scum of the profession. It is an inevitable corollary of views like these that, for the critic and reviewer, Mr. Wilson has nothing but contempt. The critic is the enemy of freshness and originality, and, "set on" by the fashionable coterie which rules the town, he harries the poor young author, and disables him from earning a livelihood. And so it goes on. These essays are an echo of the past. No such world exists as that which Mr. Wilson describes. Individuality is not what needs stimulation, but excellence. Of ignorance there is enough, Heaven knows, already.

Impressions and Experiences. By W. D. Howells. Harper & Bros. 1896.

THE distinction is not very well defined, but we prefer Mr. Howells's experiences to his impressions. His earliest memories concern a country printing office wherein and whereof he had practical experience, and his narrative of the manner of creating and distributing a "local" newspaper fifty years ago is sufficiently entertaining. The "country printer" whom he describes was his father, and perhaps he is restrained by modesty from saying too much in his praise, but he might have gone much further in this direction without offending against good taste. The early Free-Soilers were interesting and often noble men, and the glimpses that we get of the elder Mr. Howells make us wish that we knew more of him. If it is true, as Mr. Howells says, that "the old-fashioned country newspaper formed almost the sole intellectual experience of the remote and quiet folks who dwelt in their lonely farmsteads on the borders of the woods," why should he doubt if his father's paper influenced its readers at all?—since it was a sincere attempt at conscientious and self-respecting journalism, addressing itself seriously to the minds of its readers, and seeking to form their tastes and opinions. Carlyle's readers are not repelled by his hearty laudation of his father's stone-masonry, and we are willing to believe that the honest and earnest Free-Soil editor out in the Western Reserve built himself a monument more lasting if less visible than a stone bridge.

It may be that the somewhat atrabilious temperament which Mr. Howells displays of recent years has made him doubtful whether any earnest work is worth while. If everything is for the worst in the worst possible world, what is the use of struggling? Why not fold our hands and let the crash come—the sooner the better? To be sure, Mr. Howells's pessimism has not practically carried him so far as this. He still encourages mendicancy by promiscuous almsgiving; but he frankly confesses that he does not believe that his action has any tendency to reduce the aggregate of human misery. He apparently justifies himself by subjective considerations: he is afraid that if he does not give to street beggars his heart will become hard, and he thinks it of more importance that it should be kept soft than that the efforts of the Charity Organization Society to suppress mendicancy should be successful. We do not know by what process of reasoning this conclusion is justified; but we cannot assent to it. We do not believe that Mr. Howells's heart would become ossified if

he never gave another penny to a street beggar, and we are quite sure that any slight cardiac induration that resulted from this course of action would be more than made up for by the arrest of cerebral tendencies in the opposite direction.

For it appears to us to admit of no question that Mr. Howells has suffered from the bad company that he has been keeping. We do not impugn his literary judgment—an artist can find material anywhere: George Eliot's early sketches of plain people rank with the best work that other writers have done in describing aristocratic life. But the exclusive contemplation of morbid specimens of humanity, without any defined purpose or expectation of improving their condition, is necessarily demoralizing. Physicians are not demoralized by dealing with disease, because they deal with it only to cure or relieve; but Mr. Howells has no hope for his patients. He describes a poor woman in Central Park (whom he conjectures to be out of work), listening to a shabbily dressed man (whom we conjecture to be professionally out of work), who shows her that it would make no difference if she had work, because, "in the nature of things as we have them, it could only be a question of time when she must be thrown out of any place she found." Such wisdom Mr. Howells says he cannot gainsay, and then goes on to tell us that if the poor became rich they would only be unkind for it. One feels like asking, in the name of common sense, what will Mr. Howells have. He does not want things as they are now, he thinks things would be worse if the poor became rich; and we cannot imagine any arrangement that would content him except to leave the poor as they are, and to reduce the rich to the same condition. This has often been proved to be the logical outcome of Socialism; but few socialists come so near to admitting it as Mr. Howells.

As was explained in the 'Bab Ballads' in the case of Baines Carew, Esq., excessive sympathy and sentimentality are disqualifications for serious work. But they have had even more serious effects in Mr. Howells's case. We may treat as a venial offence his thrusting upon us the hideous and sordid aspects of humanity. He has become so accustomed, perhaps, to the company of vagabonds and outcasts who display their amputations and imposthumes for professional purposes, that he feels no impropriety in showing the world by ocular and nasal demonstration that its righteousness is literally nothing but wounds and bruises and putrefying sores. This is not in accordance with Horace's theories of good taste; but Horace was of the Romantic school. Yet when it comes to the bold assertion that the rich do not wish to see conditions bettered, even for their own sakes, and merely to escape being confronted by the loathliness of poverty, we must protest. The imputation is so outrageously unjust as to require no comment. That Mr. Howells should make it, shows, we fear, that the poison of Socialism has reached his moral sense. Does he really suppose that he is the only person that is distressed by the existence of poverty and misery? Does he not know that thousands of rich people are agonizing over these evils and sacrificing themselves in a hundred ways to alleviate them? Because these people decline to rob the deserving poor by encouraging fraudulent mendicancy, are they to be condemned as heartless? And because they are not willing to surrender themselves to sentimental imbecility and helpless pessimism,

are they to be assured that in justice they should be reduced to the level of the offscourings of mankind?

It may be thought that we take Mr. Howells's "impressions" too seriously; that it does not make much difference what he says. But it does at least make a difference to him what he says, especially if it is not true; and it makes a difference to him what he does if it is not wise. He has carried his pathological studies far enough; let him come back to wholesome conditions, and once more show us some sound specimens of humanity, even if he has to idealize a little in doing it.

The Adventures of My Life. By Henri Rochefort. Edward Arnold. 1896. 2 vols., 8vo.

M. ROCHEFORT has abridged his Life for English readers, and if the portions which he has excised are more offensive to good taste than those retained, they must be curiosities. He begins the narration of his "adventures" by filling several pages with odious and utterly unvouched for scandals about Marie Antoinette and Napoleon I. which have nothing whatever to do with his life. His unrivalled gift for coarse vituperation is displayed on every possible occasion, and the whole book appears to be principally a medium for paying off old scores by pouring unmeasured abuse upon nearly every public man with whom Rochefort's virulent journalistic methods brought him into conflict. While there are many interesting passages in these volumes, their principal interest is in furnishing a "human document"; in the unconscious exhibition which the author makes of his childish vanity, his reckless untruthfulness, the petty meanness of his character, combined with a ferocity that is almost ludicrous. Although he deserves credit for the courage with which he assailed the corrupt and demoralizing government of Napoleon III., his subsequent career in connection with the atrocious Commune and with that ridiculous impostor Boulanger awakens a suspicion that he opposed the Empire not so much because he hated despotism as because he needed a target for abuse. He has not been able to make his peace with any of the numerous governments that France has had in his time, and, if we take his word for it, there is hardly a respectable man in France except Henri Rochefort, Victor Hugo, and the Communards, who displayed their patriotism by murdering priests and destroying works of art.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- A Book of Offices and Prayers. Compiled by two Fre byters of the Church. James Pott & Co. \$1.
 Almanach de Gotha. 1897. Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
 Azuzara, Gomes Eannes de. The Chronicle of the Discovery and Conquest of Guinea. Vol. I. London: The Hakluyt Society.
 Babyhood. Vol. XII. Dec., '95-Nov., '96. New York: Babyhood Publishing Co.
 Baden-Powell, B. H. The Indian Village Community. Longmans, Green & Co. \$4.
 Barrie, J. M. Sentimental Tommy. Vol. II. My Lady Nicotine, and Margaret Ogilvy. [Twistie Edition.] Scribners.
 Batterton, Rev. H. G. Vesper Bells, and Other Verses. James Pott & Co. \$3.
 Bibliotheca Americana: A Handy Book about Books which relate to Books about America. Indianapolis: George Watkins.
 Burton, Alma H. Massasoit: A Romantic Story of the Indians of New England. New York: The Morse Co. \$1.25.
 Clairmont, Col. Ralph de. Reform. Boston: Arena Publishing Co.
 Craig, R. M. A Widow Well Left: An Anglo-Indian Story. London: Roxburghe Press.
 Curtis, G. W. The Public Duty of Educated Men. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 12c.
 Davenport, Cyril Royal English Bookbindings [Portfolio Monographs.] London: Seeley & Co.; New York: Macmillan.
 Davis, Mrs. Rebecca H. Frances Waldeux. Harpers. \$1.25.
 Delitzsch, Friedrich. Die Entstehung des ältesten Schriftsystems oder: Der Ursprung der Keilschriftzeichen. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs.
 Du Maurier, George. English Society. Harpers. \$2.50.
 Ellis, E. S. Phantom of the River. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.
 Études d'Histoire du Moyen Age. Dédicées à Gabriel Monod. Paris: Alcan.
 Goldsmith, Oliver. The Vicar of Wakefield. Leach, Shawell & Sanborn. 50c.
 Goland, L. G. Wordworth's Prelude [The Temple Classics.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
 Gould, Dr. G. M. An Autumn Singer. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
 Groves, Lieut.-Col. Percy. "Scotland Forever!" or, The Adventures of Alexander McDonnell. London: George Routledge & Sons.
 Guerber, H. A. Legends of the Virgin and Christ. Dod, Mead & Co. \$1.50.
 Hains, T. J. Captain Gore's Courtship. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75c.
 Hall, Rev. C. G. The Gospel of the Divine Sacrifice: A Study in Evangelical Belief. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.25.
 Hamlin, Lieut.-Col. A. C. The Battle of Chancellorsville. Bangor, Me.: The Author.
 Hamlin, Myra S. Nan at Camp Chicopee. Boston: Roberts Bros. \$1.25.
 Haraid, H. J. The Knowledge of Life: Being a Contribution to the Study of Religions. London: A. Constable & Co.; New York: G. F. Putnam's Sons. \$1.50.
 Hazell's Annual for 1897. London: Hazell, Watson & Viney.
 Herkless, John. Richard Cameron. [Famous Scots.] Scribners. 75c.
 Hodges, Almon D. Genealogical Record of the Hodges Family of New England. Boston: Printed for the Family.
 Hodges, Fostina H. Edward Hodges Putnam. \$2.50.
 Hooker, Margaret H. Ye Gentlewoman's Housewifery. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.50.
 Horner, Susan and Joanna. Walks in Florence and its Environs. New ed., revised and enlarged. 2 vols. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Scribners. \$4.
 Houston, Prof. D. F. A Critical Study of Nullification in South Carolina. [Harvard Historical Studies.] Longmans, Green & Co. \$1.25.
 Hueffer, F. M. Ford Madox Brown: A Record of his Life and Work. Longmans, Green & Co. \$12.
 Hugo, Victor. Correspondence, 1815-1835. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Brentano's.
 Hutchinson, Rev. H. N. Prehistoric Man and Beast. Appletons.
 Ideals. Compiled by S. C. James Pott & Co. 75c.
 James, L. G. Samuel Gorton: A Forgotten Founder of Our Liberties. Providence: Preston & Rounds. \$1.
 Jebb, Prof. R. C. Sophocles. Part VII. The Ajax. Cambridge University Press; New York: Macmillan. \$3.25.
 Jensen, Wilhelm. Karlina: A Story of Swedish Love. Chicago: A. J. McClurg & Co. \$1.25.
 Keasbey, Prof. L. M. The Nicaragua Canal and the Monroe Doctrine. Putnam. \$1.50.
 Kelly, Mrs. M. A. B. Short Stories of Our Shy Neighbors. American Book Co.
 Kinross, Albert. A Game of Consequences. Merriam Co.
 Kirby, William. The Golden Dog: A Romance of the Days of Louis Quinze in Quebec. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. \$1.25.
 Knapp, Arthur H. Feudal and Modern Japan. 2 vols. Boston: Joseph Knight Co.
 Koopman, H. L. The Mastery of Books. American Book Co. 90c.
 Krehbiel, H. E. How to Listen to Music. Scribners. \$1.25.
 Latimer, Elizabeth W. Italy in the Nineteenth Century, and the Making of Austria-Hungary and Germany. \$2.50.
 Le Gallienne, Richard. The Quest of the Golden Girl: A Romance. John Lane. \$1.50.
 Litchfield, Mary E. Spenser's Britomart. Boston: Ginn & Co. 75c.
 Loomis, E. J. An Eclipse Party in Africa. Boston: Roberts Bros. \$4.50.
 Lord, Prof. J. K. Livy. Book I and Books XXI and XXII. Leach, Shawell & Sanborn. \$1.90.
 Lord, W. S. Blue and Gold. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. \$1.
 Mason, W. L. Phonographic Lesson Cards. New York: Lesson Plan & Sons. \$1.
 Mathews, C. T. The Story of Architecture: An Outline of the Styles in All Countries. Appletons. \$3.
 Mathews, William. Getting on in the World. New ed. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co.
 Mathews, William. Literary Studies. 3 vols. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co. \$5.
 Mayor, J. B. Guide to the Choice of Classical Books. New Supplement (1879-1890). London: David Nutt.
 Meadowcroft, W. H. The A B C of the X-Rays. New York: American Technical Book Co. 75c.
 Miles, Gen. Nelson A. Personal Recollections and Observations. Chicago: The Werner Co.
 Miller, William. The Balkans: Rumania, Bulgaria, Servia, and Montenegro. Putnam. \$1.50.
 Minerva: Jahrbuch der Gelehrten Welt. 1896-97. Straassburg: Trübner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
 Mitchell, J. A. That First Affair, and Other Sketches. Scribners.
 Morris, Charles. Half-hours of Travel at Home and Abroad. 4 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
 Morris, R. T. Hopkin's Fond, and Other Sketches. Putnam. \$1.25.
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